

This work investigates a figure, Nimbarka, who is famous and yet shadowy as to his identity, his time, his authentic teachings and work. The method followed in this investigation is adequate: First, securing as basis a work whose genuineness is not controvertible, the Vedāntapānijāta Saurabha; second, in its light, investigates the genuineness of other works allegedly composed by Nimbārka; third examines critically all relevant traditions concerning Nimbarka and determines their value as mere legend or reliably historical documents; fourth, ascertains the kind of literary or doctrinal affinity that exists between Nimbarka and Samkara and Śrīnivāsa; fifth, discerns the contrasts and affinities between the teachings of the Saurabha and other forms of Vaisnavism; sixth, draws the conclusions of such on historical enquiry with careful discrimination and moderation in claims of certainty or probability.

The author has also provided a close analysis of the *Saurabha* as the solid basis of his exposition of its philosophy. It has the quality of security, being solidly grounded in a text with which the author is thoroughly familiar and which he has scrutinized in and out. Due to his talent as a Sanskritist, he has drawn all the implications of Nimbārka's expression, vocabulary and phrasing. All Vedānta scholars will be grateful to have this work in hand.

Indology at Vishwa Jyoti Gurukul, Varanasi, holds a Shastri degree from Sampurnanand Sanskrit University, Varanasi and a Theological degree from the Jnanadeepa Vidya Pitha, Pune. He had his earlier philosophical studies at the Vishwa Jyoti Gurukul. Later he received his M.A. in Sanskrit-Pali and Ph.D. in Sanskrit (Vedānta) from the University of Pune. He teaches Indian Philosophy and Religion in a number of philosophical and theological centres in India.



Śrimad-Bhāgavata Vidyāpitham

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Nimbārka

A pre-Śamkara Vedāntin and His Philosophy

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A pre-Śamkara Vedāntin and His Philosophy

Joseph Satyanand



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Dedicated to my beloved parents Mr Joseph and Mrs Aleyamma

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PREFACE

It may please many that the idea to take up this study on the teachings of Nimbārka came from the late Mā Gangādevi Vedānta Pañcatīrtha of Varanasi. My contact with the late Māyī introduced me to the Nimbārka Sampradāya, of which she was a great spiritual authority. Her encouraging request took me to study the Vedāntapārijāta Saurabha of Nimbārka for my doctoral research.

Many pertinent questions concerning Nimbārka and his school of Vedānta continued to ring on my ears. One of them was the question raised by Dr Rasik Vihari **Joshi**¹: Why is there no reference to Śāmkara bhāṣya in Nimbārka's commentary and why has Nimbārka not refuted the views of opponents as Śamkara, Rāmānuja, Vallabha, Śrī Kaṇṭha and Baladeva Vidyābhūṣaṇa have done? I have tried to find answers to some of these questions in my Thesis titled 'Nimbārka and His Philosophy' submitted to the University of Poona in 1983. The present work is a revision of my doctoral Thesis.

One of the striking features of the intellectual life of our ancient sages, as remarked by R.G. **Bhandarkar**, was a total lack of historical sense. "Tradition often confuses" says **Bhandarkar**, 2 "different persons together and attributes to one what belongs to another". Nimbārka, the author of the *Vedāntapārijāta Saurabha*, and his school of thought have

2. R.G. Bhandarkar, 1913, p. 92

R.V. Joshi in his foreword to "The Philosophy of Nimbarka" by M.M. Agrawal, 1977 p. 1

also suffered at the hands of the historical confusion. Nimbārka, like the other ancient sages, has persued the contemplation on the mystery Brahman and ātman with scant regard for his own personal importance. The ultimate realization of his contemplation has been handed down to us in the form of a commentary on the *Brahmasūtras* called the *Vedāntapārijāta Saurabha*. The absence of any historical data about its author in the *Saurabha* has caused confusion of myths, legends and beliefs with history. I have tried to discuss, to discern and to distinguish facts from beliefs and history from myths. The first six chapters of the present work contain these discoveries of mine.

The bhedābhedavāda as unfolded by Nimbārka in the Saurabha is the touchstone for judging the authenticity of any other works attributed to the Ācārya. Scholars inthepast did not take note of this fact. This failure on their part has really done great disservice to the cause of Nimbārka and to the antiquity of his school. Many works containing doctrines either contradictory to the ones propounded in the Saurabha, the magnum opus of Nimbārka or are in no way in confirmity with his general teachings and outlook are attributed to the Ācārya. Therefore we have tried to examine the authenticity of many works alleged to be written by Nimbārka and have found them as later additions. This discovery had enabled us to have deeper insight into the bhedābheda philosophy of Nimbārka. Chapters Seven to Eleven of this work present the philosophy of Nimbārka as propounded in the Saurabha.

I take this occasion to express my sincere gratitude to all those who helped me in one way or other in the prosecution of this work. I am very grateful to my guide Dr. S.D. Joshi, M.A Ph D, the then Director of the Centre of Advanced Study in Sanskrit, University of Poona, whose valuable, scholarly and enlightening guidance can be seen in this present work. Pro. Richard De Smet Ph. D. of De Nobili College, Poona and Pro. V.Venkatachalam, the present Vice-Chancellor of Sampurnanand Sanskrit University, Varanasi who have helped me see through the many confusing and intriguing situation that crept up from deeper study and meditations on the subject.

Invaluable help regarding the traditional aspect of the Nimbārka school of thought was given by ŚriMāi Gangadevi pańchatirtha of Varanasi, by Śri Vrajavallabha Sharana of Śriji Mandir Vrindavana, and Śri Kathiyababa, the Mahant of Kathiyababa Ashram, Vrindavana.

I have been to various libraries in my effort to collect meaningful material for the study. Many grateful thanks to the librarians of C.A.S.S, University of Poona; Jayakar Library, University of Poona; Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Pune; Jñāna Deepa Vidyāpītḥa (Pontifical Athaneum), Pune; Viswa jyoti Gurukul Library, Varanasi; Anadā Devī Gurukul Library, Varanasi; Maitri Bhavan, Institute for the study of Religions, Varanasi; Śrīji Mandir Library, Vrindavana; University Library Allahabad; Ganganath Jha Research Institute, Allahabad, Śrī Nimbārka Pītha, Allahabad; to mention just a few of them and the dedicated staff of these libraries I thank most sincerely.

My gratitude is also due to my Religious Superiors Rev. Fr. Sila Nath, who initiated me into the field of Indology and Rev. Fr. Prabhuprasad and Rev. Fr. Joseph Dilasa who have taken keen interest in this work. A special mention must also be made of my friends Dr. S.K. Lal MA. Ph.D. of C.A.SS, Poona, Dr. Chacko Valiaveettil SJ, Dr. I. Puthiadom S.J. of Maitribhavan, Varanasi, Fr. Albert of Vidyabhavan, Pune who have rendered me valuable help to clear up many doubts and difficulties. To them and my personal friends and well-wishers I owe a debt of immense gratitude.

My sincere thanks to Missio Aachen for making this publication possible for me.

Joseph Satyanand, IMS

22 May 1994 Vishwa Jyoti Gurukul Varanasi 221003

ABBREVIATIONS

ABORI .. Annals of Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Poona

AC .. Ācāryacaritam

ASIAR ... Archaeological Survey of India, An-

nual Report

BhagP .. Bhāgavatapurāṇa BhavisyaP .. Bhaviṣyapurāṇa

BS ... Brahmasūtras of Bādarāyaṇa

BVP .. Brahmavaivarta Purāṇa Chand .. Chāndogya Upaniṣad

CII .. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum
CSS .. Chawkhambha Sanskrit Series

DHI .. The Development of Hindu Iconogra-

phy (III ed)

DSS .. Dvaitādvaita Siddhānta Setuka

E.I. .. Epigrapha Indica, Calcutta
GM .. Gurubhakti Mandākini

GOS .. Gaikward Oriental Series, Baroda

IHQ .. Indian Historical Quarterly

Katha .. Katḥa Upaniṣad
Kath.Sam .. Kātḥaka Samhitā
Kaus .. Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad

Kena Upanişad

KP .. Kūrmapurāṇa

KSS .. Kāśī Sanskrit Series

LM .. Laghu Mañjūṣā

LS .. Laghu Stava rāja Stotram

Maitri .. Maitrī Upaniṣad

Mañjusa .. Vedānta ratna mañjūṣā

MatP .. Matsyapurāṇa Mbh .. Mahābhārata

MRS .. Mantra Rahasya Şoḍaśi Mund .. Muṇḍaka — Upaniṣad

NadP .. Nāradīyapurāṇa NarPr .. Nārada Pañcarātra

NS .. Nyāya Sūtras

NSKHK .. Nimbārka Sampradāya aur usake

Kṛṣṇa bhakta Hindi Kavi

NUS .. Śrīnimbārkācārya aur unake

Sampradāya

PadP .. Padmapurāṇa

PIHC .. Proceedings of the Indian Historical

Congress

PK .. Prapanna Kalpavalli PPGV .. Parapakṣagirivajra Prasna .. Praśna Upanisad

PTR .. Purānic and Tāntric Religion

QJMS .. Quarterly Journal of Mythic Society,

Bangalore

RV .. Rgveda

ŚAKV .. Śrutyanta Kalpavalli

Sāra ... Nimbārka Vedānta ka Samksipta Sāra

Sat.Br ... Satapatha brāhmaṇa

Saurabha .. Vedāntāpārijāta Saurabha SBE .. The Sacred Books of the East

SJ .. Siddhānta Jāhnavī

SK .. Siddhānta Kusumāñjari

SKI .. Sāmkhyakārikās of Īsvarakṛṣṇa SN .. Śrīnimbārkācāryas tan matanca

SNKS .. Śavīśeṣa nirviśeṣa Śrīkṛṣṇa stavarāja

SNM .. Śrinimbārka Mahāmunindra

SS .. Siddhānta Setuka

SSS ... Śrūtisiddhānta Samgraha
Svet ... Śvetāśvatara Upaniṣad
Tait ... Taittirīya Upaniṣad

Tait ... Taittiriya Upanişad
TP ... Tattvaprakāśikā
Vaj Sam ... Vājasaneyī Samhitā

Vip .. Viṣṇupurāṇa

VisnudharmottaraP.. Vișnudharmottara Purăṇa

VKA .. Vedāntakārikāvali VM .. Vedantaratnamāla

VPSK .. Vedāntapārijāta Saurabha of Nimbārka and the Vedānta Kaustubha

of Śrinivāsa

FOREWORD

This is an important book. It embodies a definite achievement in the field of Nimbārka research, a field marked so far by uncertainty and ill-grounded beliefs. Dr. Joseph Satyanand undertook a thorough investigation of all the evidence regarding chiefly the life and work but also the teaching of the Vaisnava Vedāntin Nimbārka claimed as their founder by the Nimavant or Nimbārka adherents of the Sanakādisampradāya (the tradition going back to Sanaka and his brothers).

There is no reason to doubt the attribution to a certain Nimbārka of the first extant commentary on the *Brahmasūtra* of Bādarāyaṇa. This is the *Vedāntapārijāta Saurabha*, which is therefore to be taken as the criterion by which to evaluate the authenticity of other works allegedly composed by Nimbārka. The evidence from the *Saurabha* establishes that its author was a *Bhāgavata* Vāsudeva Vaiṣṇava and not a Nārāyaṇa Pañcarātrin or a Rādhā worshipper.

This destroys the validity of the traditional accounts of Nimbārka's date and life and of the list of other works traditionally ascribed to him. But is it possible to date the Saurabhakāra and his authentic work?

The great discovery of the author is that this work is the unnamed source to which Śaṁkara turned repeatedly for his selection of a prior opinion (pūrvapakṣa) when starting his commentary of several important sūtras. This identification of at last one of the pūrvapakṣins of Śaṁkara delighted me. I witnessed its discovery and verified every step of it: Satyanand's determination of criteria for such an identification, his careful comparison of the relevant texts of the

bhāṣyas of Nimbārka, Śaṁkara, Rāmānuja and Śrīnivāsa, his solving of the doubt regarding the direction of the reference (from Śaṁkara to Nimbārka or vice-versa). Satyanand's method was impeccable. The discovery stands.

Once established that Nimbārka preceded Śankara, other features of the Śāurabha, especially its familiarity with pre-kārikā Sāmkhya and early śāktismrather than with their well developed forms, led to the conviction that Nimbārka must have flourished during the first quarter of the sixth century A.D. Consequent conclusions concerning the post-Śankara dating of Śrīnivāsa and the even later adoption by the Nimbārka sect of the Rādhā-Kṛṣṇa cult were also secured.

Finally, the author could weed out the late accretions to the doctrine of the Saurabhakāra and expose in his own terms his genuine *bhedābheda* (difference cum non-difference) conception of the relationship between creatures and their Cause, the Brahman.

Here now is this worthy work duly published and opened to the critical appreciation of all scholars competent in Vedanta.

Prof. Richard DeSmet

De Nobili College PUNE

INTRODUCTION

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One of the basic philosophical questions discussed in India is the relation between the Absolute and the relative, the Cause and the effect, the One and the many, Unity and plurality, God and the world. Even within the Vedanta philosophy diverse and opposing views are accepted. Various schools of Vedanta are well known, Sri, Nimbarkacarya, who is also known under the names of Nimbaditya and Nimba Bhaskara, is universally venerated as founder of the Svabhavíka bhedabheda or Bhinnabhinna school of Vedanta. It is wrong to call Nimbarka a dvaitadvaitavadin as many modern authors tend to do. Such terminologies are not at all found in his vrtti (commentary) on the Brahmasūtras of Bådaråyana. The commentary of Nimbarka on the Brahmasütras is known as Vedāntapārijāta Saurabha, which is free from all dialectical controversies of dvaita (dualism) and advaita (non-dualism).

In the Vedāntapārijāta Saurabha the Ācārya gives only a brief explanation of the sūtras. His style is aphoristic. Therefore the commentary of Nimbārka on the Brahmasūtras is rightly called a vṛtti rather than a bhāṣya. Our present study is based on this vṛtti of Nimbārka. In this vṛtti Nimbārka proposes that the relation between Brahman, jīva (soul) and jagat (the world) is one of both natural difference and non-difference (svābhāvika bhedābheda). According to Nimbārka this paradox of difference and non-difference is both natural and metaphysically compatible. He uses many paradigms to explain this relationship between Brahman and jīva-jagat.

There is a natural and metaphysical difference between Brahman, the cause and jiva-jagat, the effects. Brahman is the whole while the jiva-jagat is a part. While Brahman is the inner controller and the indweller within the heart of the jiva. the jiva is the controlled, the place dwelt in. Brahman is the object of our worship and the goal of our lives. We as creatures are the worshippers and the knowers of Brahman. In liberation we attain Him. Brahman is always the Infinite. the Omniscient, Omnipresent, Omnipotent, and the Sovereign ruler of the Universe. The soul is always finite, atomic. limited and metaphysically dependent and relative. This distinction between Brahman and the jiva remains even in the state of liberation, wherein the jiva has become similar to Brahman in all other aspects. The creatures can never share the transcendence of the Creator. There is a natural difference between the Creator and the creatures because the Creator transcends the creatures. The Creator can never be exhausted by the creature. He remains always the Bevond.

This difference between Brahman and the jiva-jagat is only one aspect of the Reality. There is equally a metaphysical and natural non-difference between them. Being effects of Brahman both jiva and jagat are non-different from Brahman, their Cause. The effects share the very essence and the esse (being) of the cause. Without the continued support and the immanence of the cause in the effects the effects cease to exist. The dependance of the clay pot (the effect) on the clay (the cause) is total and absolute. There is an absolute and natural non-difference between the pot and the clay, the effects and the cause, the parts and the whole. The cause continues to permeate every aspect of the existence of the effect. Brahman is the Ultimate Cause of the world. The creatures share in His being and existence. Apart from Him, the Cause, they (the effect) have no existence at all. He indwells them. He is more present to them than even their own every existence to them. He is immanent in every form of existence. According to Nimbarka Brahman both transcends the creatures as also indwells them. There is both a natural identity and a natural difference between the cause (Brahman) and the effects, the jiva-jagat. The non-difference (abheda) between the effects and the cause is thus a metaphysical one. The immanence of the cause in the effect is natural and metaphysically compatible.

According to Nimbārka the basic teachings of the Upanisads on the relationship between Brahman and jivanisat is one of both identity (abheda) and difference (bheda). Brahman is the only Absolute Reality. The creatures are the relative contigent entities, who owe their very existence to the creative activity of Brahman.

As Nimbarka upholds both a natural and metaphysical difference and non-difference between Brahman and the lival and his view is rightly called the svābhāvika bhedabhedavāda. Nimbārka explains this profound doctrine in his own simple and a matter-of-fact style. In our study we have tried to present this doctrine of Nimbārka contained in the Saurabha in a simple and a systematic way for your kind perusal.

One of the special characteristics of Nimbārka in the Saurabha is that he has no inclination for controversies with fellow Vedāntins. But there are many disputes and controversies concerning Nimbārka. Some of these controversies are concerning his very name, his parents, his time, his works, his religious beliefs and even his very iṣṭa devatā. We have examined some of these issues involved in these controversies in the first few Chapters of the present study. Now, let us enter into the details.

CONTENTS

Preface Abbreviations Foreword Introduction

Chapter One THE VEDĀNTA PĀRIJĀTA SAURABHA AND ITS AUTHOR 25

Introduction

- 1. The Saurabhakāra was a Bhāgayata Vaiṣṇaya
 - (a) The Vāsudeva Bhāgavatas
 - (b) The Nārāyaṇa Pañcarātras
 - (c) The Saurabhakāra not a Pañcarātrin
 - (d) Nimbārka·a Vāsudeva Bhāgavata
- Nimbårka was not a Rādhākṛṣṇa worshipper
 (a) The Rādhā cult a later development
 - (b) Rādhā enters in post-Śrinivāsa era
- The Saurabhakara a disciple of Narada
 - (a) His guru: Nārada of the Chāndogya
 - (b) Nimbärka unaware of later Nārada legends
 - (c) No motivated claim

Conclusion

Chapter Two TRADITIONAL ACCOUNTS ON NIMBĀRKA

39

Introduction

- 1. The traditional bio-data and its evaluation
- 2. The works attributed to Nimbārka and their authenticity
 - (a) The SNKS is not a work of the Saurabhakāra
 - (b) The Madhvamukhamardana: A mistaken identity?
 - (c) Other works wrongly attributed to Nimbārka

	(f) DS denotes post-Saurabha Vaiṣṇavism
	(g) The Saurabha is the only extant authentic work
3.	The traditional date of Nimbārka
	(a) The Purānic references to Nimbārka are not historical documents
	(b) The guruparamparās and average life-span cannot give accurate and objective results
	(c) The birth charts of Nimbārka: expressions of faith
Con	clusion
	pter Three
MO	DERN SCHOLARS ON THE DATE OF NIMBĀRKA 66
Intr	oduction
1.	Three views of the modern scholars
2.	The Saurabhakāra cannot be post-Madhva
3.	The Saurabha not influenced by Rāmānuja
4.	Rāmānuja criticises bhedābhedavāda
5.	Even Bhāskara aware of the Saurabha
5. Con	Even Bhāskara aware of the Saurabha clusion
Con	clusion pter Four
Con	clusion pter Four
Cha NIM	clusion pter Four
Cha NIM Intr	clusion pter Four IBĀRKA: A PRE-ŚAMKARA VRTTIKĀRA 74
Cha NIM Intr	clusion pter Four BĀRKA: A PRE-ŚAMKARA VRTTIKĀRA 74 oduction
Cha NIM Intr	clusion pter Four IBĀRKA: A PRE-ŚAMKARA VRTTIKĀRA 74 oduction Nimbārka unaware of Śāmkarite theories
Cha NIM Intr	clusion pter Four BĀRKA: A PRE-ŚAMKARA VRTTIKĀRA oduction Nimbārka unaware of Śāmkarite theories Nimbārka is the Pūrvapakṣin of Śamkara
Cha NIM Intr 1.	clusion pter Four IBĀRKA: A PRE-ŚAMKARA VRTTIKĀRA oduction Nimbārka unaware of Śāmkarite theories Nimbārka is the Pūrvapakṣin of Śamkara (a) Pre-Śamkara vṛttikāras
Cha NIM Intr 1.	clusion Ipter Four IBĀRKA: A PRE-ŚAMKARA VRTTIKĀRA Oduction Nimbārka unaware of Śāmkarite theories Nimbārka is the Pūrvapakṣin of Śamkara (a) Pre-Śamkara vṛttikāras (b) Criteria for the identification of the Pūrvapakṣin (c) The aṇutva of the jīva (d) The goal of the jīva
Cha NIM Intr 1.	clusion Ipter Four IBĀRKA: A PRE-ŚAMKARA VRTTIKĀRA Oduction Nimbārka unaware of Śāmkarite theories Nimbārka is the Pūrvapakṣin of Śamkara (a) Pre-Śamkara vṛttikāras (b) Criteria for the identification of the Pūrvapakṣin (c) The aṇutva of the jīva (d) The goal of the jīva (e) The role of karmas for liberation
Cha NIM Intr	clusion Ipter Four IBĀRKA: A PRE-ŚAMKARA VRTTIKĀRA Oduction Nimbārka unaware of Śāmkarite theories Nimbārka is the Pūrvapakṣin of Śamkara (a) Pre-Śamkara vṛttikāras (b) Criteria for the identification of the Pūrvapakṣin (c) The aṇutva of the jīva (d) The goal of the jīva (e) The role of karmas for liberation (f) Śamkara refutes bhedābhedavāda
Cha NIM	clusion Ipter Four IBĀRKA: A PRE-ŚAMKARA VRTTIKĀRA Oduction Nimbārka unaware of Śāmkarite theories Nimbārka is the Pūrvapakṣin of Śamkara (a) Pre-Śamkara vṛttikāras (b) Criteria for the identification of the Pūrvapakṣin (c) The aṇutva of the jīva (d) The goal of the jīva (e) The role of karmas for liberation (f) Śamkara refutes bhedābhedavāda (g) The Gāyatri
Cha NIM Intr 1.	clusion Ipter Four IBĀRKA: A PRE-ŚAMKARA VRTTIKĀRA Oduction Nimbārka unaware of Śāmkarite theories Nimbārka is the Pūrvapakṣin of Śamkara (a) Pre-Śamkara vṛttikāras (b) Criteria for the identification of the Pūrvapakṣin (c) The aṇutva of the jīva (d) The goal of the jīva (e) The role of karmas for liberation (f) Śamkara refutes bhedābhedavāda

(d) Works venerated in the Sect

(e) MRS and PK are later developments

SRINIVASA: A POST-SAMKARA BHASYAKARA 119
Introduction
1. The Vedantakaustubha is not an independent work
2. Is Śaṁkara influenced by Śrīnivāsa?
3. Śrinivāsa adopts Śamkara's interpretation
4. Śrinivāsa is influenced by Śāṁkara
5. Śrinivāsa prefers Śāmkarite theory
6. Śrinivāsa refutes Śāmkara's theory
7. Śrinivāsa quotes BVP a post-Śamkara Purāṇa
Conclusion
Chapter Six
THE PROBABLE DATE OF NIMBARKA 149
Introduction
1. Nimbārka's criticism of Sāmkhya
2. The gradual development of the Sāṁkhya
3. Şaştitantra and pre-Kārikā Sāmkhya
4. Nimbarka seems to be familiar with pre-kārikā Sāmkhya
5. Tne Śāktavāda as known to Nimbārka
6. Nimbarka and Madhava on the Śaktamata
7. Madhva is aware of later historical development of Śāktism
8. Säktism had a pre-historical origin
9. A well developed Śākta Sect by Gupta period
10. Nimbarka lived before the early part of the sixth century
Conclusion
Chanter Same Miles and Western and all manifests of
Chapter Seven AGENERAL ANALYSIS OF VEDĀNTA PĀRIJĀTA SAURABHA 168
The second state of the se
Introduction: The sources of the Saurabha
Analysis of the Vedāntapārijāta Saurabha

(j)

(k)

(1)

Dreams

Conclusion

Chapter Five

Ubhayalingatva of Brahman

The departure of the jiva

- ADHYAYA ONE
(A) The First pāda
(B) The Second pāda
(C) The Third pāda
(D) The Fourth pāda
- ADHYĀYA TWO
(A) The First pāda
(B) The Second pāda
(C) The Third pada
(D) The Fourth pāda
- ADHYĀYA THREE
(A) The First pāda
(B) The Second pāda
(C) The Third pada
(D) The Fourth pāda
- ADHYĀYA FOUR
(A) The First pāda
(B) The Second pāda
(C) The Third pada
(D) The Fourth pāda
Chapter Eight
Chapter Eight BRAHMAN 222
THE RESIDENCE OF A SECOND PROPERTY OF THE PROP
BRAHMAN 222
BRAHMAN 222 Introduction
BRAHMAN 222 Introduction 1. How do we know Brahman?
BRAHMAN 222 Introduction 1. How do we know Brahman? 2. What is Śāstra?
BRAHMAN 222 Introduction 1. How do we know Brahman? 2. What is Śāstra? 3. Brahman gives unity to the śruti
BRAHMAN 222 Introduction 1. How do we know Brahman? 2. What is Śāstra? 3. Brahman gives unity to the śruti 4. Who is eligible to study the Veda?
BRAHMAN 222 Introduction 1. How do we know Brahman? 2. What is Śāstra? 3. Brahman gives unity to the śruti 4. Who is eligible to study the Veda? 5. The study of the Vedas
Introduction 1. How do we know Brahman? 2. What is Śāstra? 3. Brahman gives unity to the śruti 4. Who is eligible to study the Veda? 5. The study of the Vedas 6. The Brahman made known by the śruti is Puruṣottama 7. Brahman in Himself 8. Qualities of Brahman in Himself
Introduction 1. How do we know Brahman? 2. What is Śāstra? 3. Brahman gives unity to the śruti 4. Who is eligible to study the Veda? 5. The study of the Vedas 6. The Brahman made known by the śruti is Puruṣottama 7. Brahman in Himself 8. Qualities of Brahman in Himself 9. Functional qualities of Brahman
Introduction 1. How do we know Brahman? 2. What is Śāstra? 3. Brahman gives unity to the śruti 4. Who is eligible to study the Veda? 5. The study of the Vedas 6. The Brahman made known by the śruti is Puruṣottama 7. Brahman in Himself 8. Qualities of Brahman in Himself 9. Functional qualities of Brahman 10. Brahman is the cause of the world
Introduction 1. How do we know Brahman? 2. What is Śāstra? 3. Brahman gives unity to the śruti 4. Who is eligible to study the Veda? 5. The study of the Vedas 6. The Brahman made known by the śruti is Puruṣottama 7. Brahman in Himself 8. Qualities of Brahman in Himself 9. Functional qualities of Brahman 10. Brahman is the cause of the world 11. Brahman needs no instruments
Introduction 1. How do we know Brahman? 2. What is Śāstra? 3. Brahman gives unity to the śruti 4. Who is eligible to study the Veda? 5. The study of the Vedas 6. The Brahman made known by the śruti is Puruṣottama 7. Brahman in Himself 8. Qualities of Brahman in Himself 9. Functional qualities of Brahman 10. Brahman is the cause of the world
Introduction 1. How do we know Brahman? 2. What is Śāstra? 3. Brahman gives unity to the śruti 4. Who is eligible to study the Veda? 5. The study of the Vedas 6. The Brahman made known by the śruti is Puruṣottama 7. Brahman in Himself 8. Qualities of Brahman in Himself 9. Functional qualities of Brahman 10. Brahman is the cause of the world 11. Brahman needs no instruments

14. 15. 16. 17. 18. 19. 20. 21. 22. 23.	The opponents of the Brahmakāraṇavāda Brahman and the universe are correlatives Cause-effect have a Bhedābheda relation The Aupaniṣadika pradhāna The purpose of creation The process of evolution The order of evolution Dissolution Brahman is beyond karma Brahman is the final goal of creation	
Cha	pter Nine	
THE	JĪVA AND THE JAGAT	247
Intre	oduction	
1.	What is the jiva?	
2.	The jivas are equal	
3.	The jiva is a knower	
4. 5.	The jīva is an agent The jīva is an enjoyer	
6.	The jiva is atomic	
7.	The all-pervading attribute of the jiva	
8.	The five states of the jīva	
9.	The kinds of the jivas	
10.	The bondage of the jiva	
11.	The cause of bondage	
12.	The world	
13.	The world is real	
Con	clusion	
	pter Ten	0.00
	E FINAL DESTINY OF THE CREATED BEINGS	263
	oduction	
A. 1.	Means to liberation Karma (works)	
1.	(a) Obligatory duties	
	(b) Occasional duties	
	ydgerg	

(c) Who are qualified for Brahmavidyā	
(d) Need of a guru for the study of the scriptures	
(e) What is vidyā?	
(f) Upāsana (meditation)	
(g) The types of Brahmopāsanas	
(h) Samagropāsana	
(i) The posture and place of <i>Upāsana</i>	
(j) The rise of <i>vidyā</i>	
(k) Upāsana and Bhakti	
3. Prasāda	
B. The life of a vidvān	
C. Salvation after the prarabdhakarmans Exhausted D. Death	
(1) The departure of the pious worker: the path of the fathers	
(2) The Departure of the vidvān (the path of gods)	
E. The final goal	
F. The state of moksa	
Conclusion	
Chantar Floren	
Chapter Eleven THE BHEDĀBHEDA PHILOSOPHY OF NIMBĀRKA 288	
Introduction	
1. Scripture and the Brahmasūtras teach the Bhedābheda doctrine	
2. The bhedābhedavāda is founded on Satkāryavāda	
3. The Saurabha teaches Brahmapariṇāmavāda	
4. The causality of Brahman is unique	
5. The Bhedābheda relation	
6. The Bhedābheda relation is explained through meta-	
phors	
phors 7. The meaningfulness of the bhedābheda relation General Conclusion	
phors 7. The meaningfulness of the bhedābheda relation General Conclusion Notes and References 308	
phors 7. The meaningfulness of the bhedābheda relation General Conclusion	

(c) Prudential duties

(b) The source of Vidyā

(a) Vidyā is not a karmānga

Jñāna

2.

Chapter 1

THE VEDĀNTAPĀRIJĀTA SAURABHA AND ITS AUTHOR

The Vedāntapārijāta Saurabha (hereafter Saurabha) is an extant vākyārtha on the Brahmasūtras, attributed to Nimbārka. The Saurabha is generally free from sectarian animosities and polemical details. It is a very condensed exposition of the Vedānta doctrine, without any attempt at refuting or maligning any other school of Vedānta philosophy¹. The author explains the sūtras in a few words in simple language and style. His terminology is more archaic and his Vaiṣṇava theology is less developed compared to the works of the well known Vaiṣṇava commentators like Rāmānuja and others.

The colophon at the end of each pāda, perhaps a late addition by some disciples², reads iti śrūnad bhagavan nimbārka virācite śārīraka mīmāmsā vākyārthe vedāntapārijāta saurabhe....". Thus this work has been attributed to Nimbārka. For our present study Nimbārka is the Saurabhakāra³. Even a quick perusal of the Saurabha gives us a few valuable and definite pieces of information about the Saurabhakāra.

1. The Saurabhakāra was a Bhāgavata Vaisnava

The Saurabha contains only a few Vaiṣṇava terms. But for them, this vākyārtha of Nimbārka would be free of every

form of a sectarianism. According to Nimbārka Ramākānta Puruṣottama, the greatest of all, is denoted by the term Brahman, because of His infinite, inconceivable and innate nature, qualities and powers⁴. Nimbārka calls Him Brahman⁵ in His transcendental form, Śrī Puruṣottama⁶ or Bhagavān Vasudeva⁷ in His relation to the cosmos and Paramātman⁸ or Antaryāmin⁹ in His relation to the jīva.

(a) The Vāsudeva Bhāgavatas

A short perusal of the origin and development of Vaisnavism will help us to understand the philosophy of the Saurabhakāra better. The classical Vaisnavism with which we are familiar today, is a kind of amalgam of various religious elements which were originally independent 10. The chief among them are the elements of Bhagavatism (Vasudeva cult) and Pañcarātrism (Nārāyana cult). The original Vāsudevism, centred around the Vrsni hero, Vāsudeva, seems to have flourished at least from the time of Panini (450) B.C.)11. The popularity of the Vasudeva cult even among the foreigners is evident from the Besanagar inscription of Heliodoros¹². This inscription also makes it clear that Vāsudevism was known as Bhāgavatism. The various elements that merged in Bhagavatism are the cults centred around the Vrsni heroes, Arjuna 13, Samkarsana Baladeva 14 the Yādava hero, Krsna¹⁵ and the Abhira hero, Gopāla Krsna 16. The actual date of their merger and identification with the vedic Visnu is even now a matter of speculation. R.N. Dandekar 17 and H.C. Chaudhuri 18 hold that such an identification has taken place at least by the time of the Besanagar inscription. S. Jaiswal, on the other hand, holds that such an identification has taken place only by the time of the completion of the Mahābhārata 19. The Mahābhārata attempts to make a single homogeneous mythological figure of Krsna from the various currents and traditions that merged together to form the Vasudevism as we know it today²⁰. The identification of Krsna with the Vedic Visnu has definitely taken place at least by the beginning of the fifth Century A.D., as is evident from the Tusan (Hissar District) rock inscriptions²¹, in which Visnu is described as "the mighty bee on the lotus like mouth of Jāmbavatī". Now Jāmbavatī is one of the wives of Vasudeva Krsna²².

Another tradition that has contributed to the development of Vaiṣṇavism, as we have said early, is the *Pañcarātra* cult. Suvira **Jaiswal** gives a detailed explanation of the term *Pañcarātra*²³. Mahābhārata XII. 325.4 speaks of the *Pañcarātras* as worshippers of Nārāyaṇa and the Nārāyaṇiya section of Mahābhārata speaks of Nārāyaṇa as a *Pañcārātrika*. The *Pañcarātra* cult had Nārāyaṇa at its centre as opposed to the Vāsudeva of the Bhāgavatas. The former upheld the *Vyūhavāda* as opposed to the *avatāravāda* of the latter²⁴.

(b) The Nārāyaṇa Pañcarātras

We have no archaeological or historical remnants of the Pre-Gupta Pañcarātra Sect. The earliest mention of Nārāyaṇa is in the Satapatha-Brāhmana 12.3.4.1 and the oldest available Pañcarātra literary document is the Ahirbudhnya Samhita25. According to the Ahirbudhnya Samhita26, one of the important doctrines of the Pancaratra Sect is the five fold forms of the ultimate reality namely the Para, Vyūha, Vibhava, Antaryāmin and Arca²⁷. J.N. Banerjea²⁸ has disproved all the early contentions of scholars like H.C. Ray Chaudhuri and has established beyond doubt that none of "the Vyūha image" so far discovered can be dated to an earlier period than the late Gupta period. This fact gives credence to the fear that there was stiff hostility to the Pañcarātra in pre-Gupta period so much so that all traces of its influence were destroyed. Post-Gupta period seems to have been more tolerant towards the Pancaratras, because some type of an assimilation of the Nārāyana element into Bhāgavatism seems to have taken place by that time. Although the Nārāyaniya section of the Mahābhārata seems to be primarily meant for the "narayanaization" of Vasudeva Krsnaism29, the Bhagavadgītā avoids any mention of Nārāyana or the doctrine of Vuūha30.

The *Pañcarātrism* was condemned in the early *Dharmaśāstra* works and law books³¹. When some Brahmins accepted the priestly services including the idol worship in the *Pañcarātra* temples, they were condemned and were regarded to be lower than the traders in meat and weapons³². In spite of this condemnation, many Brahmins seem to have accepted the temple services because of its

popularity among the masses, and the fact that officiating at these temples was a lucrative profession³³.

Bhāgavatism, on the contrary, was mostly limited to the higher castes. It received the patronage of kings. Even the Kuṣāṇa kings, who were Patrons of Śaivism and Buddhism were not averse to Bhāgavatism³⁴. Most of the Gupta emperors gloried in calling themselves Paramabhāgavatas ³⁵. When foreigners were received into Bhāgavatism, they were accommodated within the corresponding castes of the Bhāgavatas ³⁶.

It must be pointed out that inspite of the identification of Nārāyaṇa with Vāsudeva in the Mahābhārata, the distinction between the Pañcarātras and the Bhāgavatas continued to exist. The Pañcarātras continued to offer, even upto the sixth Century A.D. the Nārāyaṇabali ³⁷ which is a special feature of the Sect. Some writers and ācāryas seem to make a clear-cut distinction between the Bhāgavatas and the Pañcarātras. For example, Kumārila in his Tanṭravārtikam counts the Pañcarātra along with the Śākya, Sāmkhya, Yoga, and Pāśupata as not purely vedic³⁸. Medhātithi in his commentary on the Manu-Smṛti 2.6 has the same outlook on the Pañcarātras. Above all, Bāṇabhaṭṭa (A.D. 606-648) makes a clear distinction between the Bhāgavatas and the Pañcarātras as separate religious Sects³⁹.

Agreater amalgamation of Bhāgavatism and Pañcarātrism seems to have taken place by the time of Śaṅkara. Yet he seems to make a distinction between the Bhāgavatas and the Pañcarātras in so far as he says that a part of the Bhāgavata system agrees with the Vedānta school while another part is condemnable⁴⁰. Śaṅkara was not completely averse to the Bhāgavata doctrine⁴¹, nay he had profound respect for the Bhāgavata matam ⁴². But he was not prepared to accept the Vyūha doctrine which had come to the Bhāgavata religion, as we have seen above, from the Pañcarātras. He was not prepared to accept the origin of Śaṅkarsana, etc. from Vāsudeva. Therefore, he rejected the Vyūhavāda on the ground of such resultant defects as the non-permanence of the soul⁴³.

On the contrary, a total merger of *Pañcarātra* into and its complete identification with the *Bhāgavata Vaiṣṇavism* seems

to have taken place by the time of Rāmānuja, with the result that Vaiṣṇavism had accepted the Vyūhavāda as an essential doctrine. Therefore it became the responsibility of Rāmānuja to defend the Vyūhavāda as well as the Pañcarātra system as a whole against the attacks of the advaitins.

(c) The Saurabhakāra not a Pañcarātrin

Nimbārka does not appear to be a Pañcarātra-Ācārya. First of all, there is nothing of the Narayana cult in the Saurabha. As pointed out earlier the istadeva of the Saurabhakāra is Ramākānta Purusottama. Nimbārka avoids even the reference to Narayana, while quoting from the Mahabharata44, Nimbarka also does not make any defence of the Pancaratra-Agamas as authoritative Śāstra as Madhya had done under BS 1.1.3. The theory of creation in the Saurabha is not at all in conformity with that of the Pancaratras, as expounded in the Ahirbudhnya-Samhitā 45. Moreover, there is no mention of the Vyūha doctrine in the Saurabha. If Nimbārka were a Pañcarātrin we would expect him to bring in something of the Pañcarātra doctrines in the Saurabha. Above all, if he were a post-Samkara Pañcarātrin we would expect him to defend the Pañcarātra doctrines and scriptures against Samkara and his advatta school46 as done by the post-Samkara Vaisnava ācāryas. Therefore Nimbārka does not appear to be a Pañcarātrin.

(d) Nimbārka a Vāsudeva Bhāgavata

The conclusion would be that if Nimbārka was not a Pañcarātrin, he should be a Bhāgavata Vaiṣṇava. A careful perusal of the Saurabha would support this view⁴⁷. The Saurabha contains doctrines which are in complete conformity with the Brāhmaṇic Bhāgavatism and the Bhagavadgītā. There is no trace of any Pañcarātra influence on the Saurabha. Now as a Bhāgavata-Vaiṣṇava-bhāṣyakāra he would reject the Pañcarātra tenets in BS 2.2.42 as Śaṁkara has done. First of all, as pointed out by J.N.Banerjea, nobody before Śaṁkara considered BS 2.2.42-45 as dealing with the Pañcarātra doctrine of Vyūhavāda ⁴⁸. It suffices to say that the Saurabhakāra seems to be unaware of even Śaṁkara⁴⁹ and therefore it did not strike him to see a possible refutation of the Vyūhavāda in BS 2.2.42-45.

Moreover the Saurabhakāra's silence on the Vuūhavāda may point to the fact that he lived at a period when a slow merging of the Pañcarātra into the Bhāgavata religion was taking place and the resulting Vaisnavism was in its formative stage. It was meaningless to antagonize "the newcomers" into the fold who were in the process of giving up their early tantric tendencies and becoming one with the Bhagavatas. Therefore Nimbarka would have felt it more prudent and useful to reject the tantric or rather the Śakta cult which he does under the same sūtras⁵⁰. While commenting on the same sūtras Samkara and Rāmānuja clash on the Pañcarātra system because by the time of Rāmānuja the merger of the Pañcarātra into Bhagavatism was complete and the resulting Vaisnavism had accepted the Vyūhavāda as its own, over and above the avatāravāda coming down from the Bhāgavatism and the Bhagavadgitā.

Now the opinion of some modern scholars that Nimbārka lived sometime after Rāmānuja⁵¹ and so he did not feel the need of defending the *Pañcarātra* system, which had already been strongly defended by Rāmānuja is unfounded since we have ample evidence to show the pre-Śāmkara nature of the *Vedāntapārijāta-Saurabha* of Nimbārka⁵². True, there are some similarities between the *Saurabha* and the *Śrībhāṣya* since both teach the *Vaiṣṇava* vedānta, but the terminology of the former is more archaic and its *Vaiṣṇava* concepts more primitive⁵³. Besides, in the post-Rāmānuja Vaiṣṇavism, *Rādhā* seems to replace *Ramā* or *Lakṣmī*, and *Rādhākṛṣṇa* cult seems to become more popular. That takes us to another discussion.

2. Nimbārka was not a Rādhākṛṣṇa worshipper

The present day followers of Nimbārka are worshippers of *Rādhākṛṣṇa*. There is a general belief that Nimbārka himself was a worshipper of Rādhākṛṣṇa, and has composed a few prayer stanzas or *stotras* in honour of Rādhā and Kṛṣṇa⁵⁴. Against all the traditional beliefs it must be pointed out that there is no mention of either Rādhā or Rādhākṛṣṇa in the entire *Saurabha*. The goddess that he associates with Puruṣottama is Ramā⁵⁵, who is identified with Lakṣmī by Amara Siṁha in his *Amarakośa* ⁵⁶, a work of the sixth cen-

tury A.D. 57 The mere absence of any mention of Radha and Rådhäkrsna in the entire Saurabha will go a long way to dethrone the myth that Nimbarka was the propagator of the Rādhākrsna cult⁵⁸. As seen earlier the istadevatā of the Saurabhakāra is Ramākānta. He could verv well have substituted Ramā with the word Rādhā, had he been a Rādhākrsna worshipper, since the place where it occurs is a prose passage, and as such it does not demand any change for the sake of metre. Further, it must also be pointed out here that there is a contradiction in the tradition of the Nimbärka school itself, which considers Nimbärka to have lived at the end of the Dvaparayuga 59 and to have been a propagator of Rādhākṛṣna cult60. For, all the available evidences show that Rādhā appeared on the religious scene only after the tenth century A.D.61. We will now examine these evidences.

(a) The Rādhā cult a later development

In the earlier Puranas the wife of Krsna Vasudeva is named Rukmini⁶². Therefore scholars are almost unanimous in asserting that the Rādhā element in Vaisnavism is of recent origin⁶³ and they strongly reject the opinion of those who try to trace Rādhā in Vedic literature and Astronomy64. Rādhā could be associated with Vāsudeva Krsna only after the latter became identified with Gopāla Krsna of the Abhiras⁶⁵. Once that identification was established, it was easy to attribute the amorous dalliances of the Abhira god Gopāla Kṛṣṇa to Vāsudeva Kṛṣṇa of the Vṛṣṇis and the Yadavas. This also explains why such stories are found only in the later Puranas. Although the Mahabharata, the Harivamśa, the Bhāgavata Purāna, the Visnupurāna, etc. deal with the dalliance of Krsna with Gopis in general, on the bank of the river. Yamuna, there is no mention of Radha in any of them66

Perhaps the *Gāthā Saptaśatī*, a work in Mahārāstri prākrit of the Śatavāhana emperor Hāla, is the earliest work to mention the dalliance of Rādhā and Kṛṣṇa⁶⁷. Even there, Rādhā is clearly stated only in one stanza, which reads:

muhamāruena tam kahana goraam rāhiāế avanento etānam bālavīnam annānam vi goam harasi⁶⁸

Keith⁶⁹ dates this work to a time between 200-450 A.D. After a careful study S.C. Mukherji⁷⁰ comes to the conclusion that though the work received additions down to the eighth century A.D., the bulk of the work was composed before the seventh century A.D. Perhaps the stanza 1.29, mentioned above may belong to the later stage because the archaeological and other literary evidences available from the seventh and eighth centuries A.D. substantiate only the association of Krsna with the gopis in general where no special importance is given to any particular gopi71. But from the ninth century onwards we have an abundance of reference to Rādhā in the literature and her amorous dealings with Krsna became the popular theme for the poets⁷². Love stories of gods offered rich grazing field for the imagination of the poets in India even from the time of Kālidāsa. In course of time the theme of Rādhākrsna dalliance became the most favourite topic of poets, perhaps because the 'cowherd' life of Krsna and Rādhā was most suitable for wide imagination of the poets on love. For them Rādhā became the ideal woman for the description of various stages of Srngararasa. These poets seem to be more interested in the description of the rāsalīlārather than the deification of Rādhā⁷³. This has been the general tendency of the poets from the ninth century A.D. to the 15th century A.D. By the 15th century A.D., the Vaisnava poets began to emphasize the madhura aspect of Rādhākrsna prema. For them Rādhā became the embodiment of madhurarasa.

In the sphere of popular religion, it is to be noted that even at the end of the tenth century A.D. Rādhā didn't attain the status of Lakṣmī, nor was she an object of worship⁷⁴, because they were considered to be distinct entities as is evident from the three inscriptions of king Vākpati Muñja of Malava issued in A.D 974. 982 and 986⁷⁵.

S.B. **Dasgupta**⁷⁶ has established on the basis of available ancient documentary evidences that in and through literature Rādhā entered the field of philosophy and religion at the earliest by the 12th century A.D. Once she found a place in philosophy and religion, she grew stronger and became more important, the background for which had already been prepared in the philosophical conceptions and

speculations of Laksmī as the Śakti of Viṣṇu⁷⁷. The remote background for such a philosophy seems to be the Sāṁkhya concept of prakṛti and Puruṣa.

On the strength of the available archaeological evidences, especially of the Anavada (Gujarat) inscriptions of A.D. 1292, during the reign of Sārangadeva, **Majumdar** established that Rādhā became the object of cult only in the 13th century A.D. that is to say, a century after the appearance of the *Gitagovinda* of Jayadeva⁷⁸. Candīdāsa seems to be the first poet who attempted to reconcile Rādhā and Lakṣmī⁷⁹. According to the Purāṇas⁸⁰, the parents of Rādhā are Vṛṣabhānu and Kalāvati or Kīrtidā. As pointed out by **Dasgupta**⁸¹ Śrīkṛṣṇa kīrtana of Caṇdīdāsa, however, gives a different genealogvof Rādhā. Here she is presented as born of the womb of Padmā, in the house of Sāgara⁸². The Śrīkṛṣṇakīrtana showers Rādhā with many of the epithets of Lakṣmī like Padmini etc⁸³.

It may be proper here to say a word about the contribution made by the later Purāṇas in propagating the Rādhā cult. According to Majumdar⁸⁴ a real attempt is made in the Brahmavaivarta Purāṇa ⁸⁵ to reconcile all the legends and traditions concerning Rādhā and to thrash out the contradictions through stories newly invented with this purpose in view. As a result the Brahmavaivarta Purāṇa presented Rādhā as the lawful wife of Kṛṣṇa⁸⁶, whose marriage was solemnized by Brahmā himself. Similarly the present extant version of the Padmapurāṇa is also a late work containing eulogies of the later Rādhā cults and their super human results⁸⁷. It was mainly due to the Purāṇas like Brahmavaivarta and Padma that the Rādhā cult became popular and she attained the same status in relation to Kṛṣṇa as Laksmī in relation to Viṣṇu.

Besides these Purāṇas the works of poets like Śrīdharadāsa, Caṇdīdāsa, Vidyāpati of Mithilā etc. played a magnificent role in making the Rādhā cult popular in Bengal. Padmāvati of Rupa Gosvamin, containing the composition of many of the earlier poets, not only of Bengal, but also of the neighbouring states, is a lasting testimony to the popularity of the Rādhākṛṣṇa theme among the poets from 12th century A.D. onwards, so much so that the Bengalees even considered that the theme of Rādhākṛṣṇa love was a sine qua non

for lyrics⁸⁸. But the greatest contribution in making the Rādhā cult more popular is made by the religious movement started with Caitanya Mahāprabhu⁸⁹. The philosophical writings of the Gauḍ̄jya Gosvāmis of Vṛndāvana further strengthened the foundations of Rādhā cult.

(a) Rādhā enters in post-Śrīnivāsa era

The above discussion proves that there is a contradiction with regard to the traditional belief that Nimbārka, an Ācārya living in the first century of *Kaliyuga* ⁹⁰ was a propagator of Rādhā cult. Here it must also be pointed out that even Śrīnivāsa, the first commentator on the *Saurabha*, does not mention Rādhā, although he mentions Kṛṣṇa⁹¹ several times, and he actually quotes some portions of the extant version of the *Daśaślokī* ⁹². What is striking is that he avoids that stanza of the *Daśaślokī* in which a mention is made of Rādhā. As will be pointed out, this omission seems to be wilful⁹³.

Furthermore, it must also be mentioned that the traditionalists cannot take refuge in the contention that today Rādhā is accepted as identical with Śrī or Lakṣmī and therefore any mention of the name or a synonym of Śrī or Lakṣmī in the ancient literature or archaeological monuments is a reference to Rādhā. As we have stated earlier, just as many streams of religious traditions have merged into the making of the personality of Kṛṣṇa and the Kṛṣṇaite religion, so also various religious elements and traditions have come together in the making of the personality of Rādhā. From a historical point of view these elements are different and had their origin in different backgrounds. They have become merged into the mainstream at a particular period in history. These distinctions have to be kept in mind in any meaningful evaluation of the historical aspects.

We may conclude that Rādhā cult, which originated sometime after the tenth century A.D., has entered the Nimbārka school some time after Śrīnivāsa, the first known commentator of the *Vedāntapārijāta Saurabha*.

3. The Saurabhakāra was a disciple of Nārada

The Saurabhakāra considered Narāda, the teacher of the bhūman doctrine as his guru. In his commentatory BS 1.3.8

Nimbärka asserts:

Paramācāryath śrīkumārair asmad gurave śrīman maradaya upadisto bhūmātvena vijijñāsitavyaḥ (Chānd 7.22.1) maradaya prāṇo na bhavati kintu śrīpuruṣottamaḥ kutaḥ? marad upart bhūmna upadeśāt⁹⁴.

(a) His guru; Nārada of the Chāndogya

In the above passage, the Saurabhakāra acknowledges that he belongs to the *Chāndogyan* tradition in which the doctrine of *bhūmā* was originally taught by Śrīkumāra to his disciple Nārada. Who could be this Nārada, whom Nimbārka considers as his *guru?* There is no compelling reason to regard Nārada, the *guru* of Nimbārka to be identical with the sage Nārada, who is also regarded as the author of the *Nārada Pañcarātras* and the *Nārada-bhakti-sūtras*.

Narada, the author of the Naradapañcaratras could not be the guru of Nimbārka because, on the one hand, this work belongs to the 16th century A.D95 and, on the other hand, even the most "pessimist" among the "detractors" of Nimbarka places him at least in the 13th century A.D. 96 If Nårada of the Bhaktisūtra was the guru of Nimbārka, then there would result a contradiction within the tradition. On the one hand, according to the Acaryacaritam, Nimbarka is also called Aruni, being the son of the sage Aruna and is considered to be the immediate disciple of Nārada⁹⁷. On the other hand, Nārada, the alleged author of the Bhakti-sūtras. enumerates the names of the earlier Acaryas, among whom Āruni is also praised⁹⁸. Therefore we are unable to accept Nārada, the propagator of the Rādhākrsna cult, as the guru of Nimbārka, if Nimbārka is really Āruni, whom Nārada, the alleged Bhaktisūtrakāra himself, regards as an earlier Ācārya.

(b) Nimbārka unaware of later Nārada legends

Even if we assume that Nārada of the *Chāndogya* and the sage by the same name found in all the legends are the same person, one has to accept that there was a steady development of legends concerning Nārada in course of centuries. Nārada, in fact, is a complex personality in the mythological narratives. That Nimbārka is not aware of all the known legends concerning Nārada, say by the time of Śaṁkara⁹⁹, is

evident from the Saurabha itself. In his explanation of sūtra 3.3.32100. Nimbarka put forth the example of Vasistha to show that the persons who are appointed to particular "offices" on account of some meritorious deeds in the past, continue to remain embodied as long as their office itself lasts, owing to the influence of the works of which their "office" is the result 101. The sūtra does not limit the example of office to Vasistha alone as has been done by Nimbarka. It is worth noting that Samkara in his bhasua on the same sūtra brings in also Sanatkumāra and Nārada and their "offices" mentioned in the Vaisnava Purānas. 102 It is reasonable to infer that, had Nimbarka been aware of this Nārada legend, he could not have omitted it. It would have been a grave negligence on his part not to speak of the special "office" of his guru. Nārada, and to give importance to Vasistha in spite of the fact that Samkara mentions not only Nārada, his guru, but also Sanatkumāra, his Paramācārua. Such a grave omission is least expected of Nimbārka who regards the guru as the only deva. 103

It seems that some of the later followers of Nimbārka mistook his statement in the *Saurabha* 1.3.8 and identified Nārada, mentioned therein, as the one mentioned in the *Bhaktisūtra*¹⁰⁴ and attributed all the contemporary legends of Nārada to the *guru* of Nimbārka, although such an identification and attribution were unwarranted. But it was quite natural for the later Vaiṣṇavas to do so. For example, even as late as the 16th century, Dāmodaradeva (1488-1588) is believed to have been initiated by the sage Nārada taking the form of an ascetic¹⁰⁵. It is interesting to note the tradition that even Vyāsamuni was instructed by Nārada, when the former was at Bādarikāśrama. At the instruction of Nārada, it is believed, Vyāsamuni wrote down the *Bhāgavata Purāṇa* and obtained solace and peace of mind¹⁰⁶.

Some modern scholars of the Nimbārka sect like N.D. **Sharma** try to defend the belief that Nārada of the mythology is the real *guru* of Nimbārka on the ground that Nārada is ever young and ever immortal¹⁰⁷ and that he possesses supernatural *siddhis* from yogic exercises¹⁰⁸ so that he can appear to anybody and accept him as a disciple. But then we are in the sphere of faith according to which Nārada appears

whenever there is any kind of an impasse or indecision regarding the Vaisnava doctrine. There is also a belief that Nărada is the synthesizer of two opposite principles 109 of Nigama and Agama. But then we are beyond historical perspective.

herefore we may conclude that Nimbārka appears to belonged to a period in which the complex traditional centred round the personality of Nārada had not yet man 10, because Nimbārka is unaware of some important concerning Nārada 111. When various legends around Nārada grew and developed they were easily attributed to the original personality of the sage 112. The unscrupulous attribution of various legends to the original personality of Nārada creates a lot of historical problems and it has done much damage even to the historical personality of Nimbārka.

(c) No motivated claim

Some scholars attribute motives to Nimbārka for claiming Nārada as his guru. One of such motives is to show the antiquity of his own doctrine. Says Roma **Bose:** 103

"Nimbārka might very well have called Nārada his preceptor simply for showing the antiquity of his own doctrine as well as for glorifying it and making it more acceptable to the people, for quite naturally people would fall in with his doctrine far more easily if they were to learn that it was not invented by Nimbārka, a man, but was handed down to him by Nārada, a divine sage, who, again, learnt it from the Kumāras, sons of Brahmā, who, finally, learnt it from the Lord Himself".

Here it must be pointed out that if Nimbārka had any such desire for popularity and acceptance among the masses it should have been for the *Bhūman* doctrine of the Chāndogyan tradition, in the context of which he claims Nārada as his *guru*. I, in fact, fail to comprehend the propriety of the argument advanced by Roma **Bose** that Nārada was supposed to be well acquainted with the *glory of Rādhākṛṣṇa*, the central point of Nimbārka's doctrine ¹ ¹⁴. The presumption that the central point of the doctrine of Nimbārka is the Rādhakṛṣṇa cult is unwarranted and without any foundation in the entire Saurabha. As we have pointed out, Nimbārka was not a Rādhākṛṣṇa worshipper at all. If he wanted to popularize the cult of *Rādhākṛṣṇa* he should have presented them, instead

of Ramākānta puruṣottama, as the ultimate reality. A mere statement that the Bhūman taught by the Paramācārya Śrikumāra to his guru the reverend (Śrīmad) Nārada is Śrī Puruṣottama 115, does not at all mean that Nimbārka wanted to popularize the cult of Rādhākrṣṇa among the masses.

Conclusion

The above study based on the *Vedāntapārijāta Saurabha* shows that its author was a Bhāgavata Vāsudeva Vaiṣṇava. Our study leads us to conclude that the Saurabhakāra was not a Nārāyaṇa *Pañcarātrin* or a Rādhā worshipper. These elements seem to have come into the classical Vāsudeva Vaiṣṇavism in a post-Saurabhakāra period. Similarly, the claim of Nimbārka that he is a disciple of Nārada cannot be taken to mean that he is an "immediate disciple" of Nārada.

Chapter 2

TRADITIONAL ACCOUNTS ON NIMBĀRKA

Introduction

After establishing what we could assume certain about the Saurabhakāra on the basis of his work *Vedāntapārijāta Saurabha*, an attempt is made in this chapter, to evaluate some of the traditional beliefs as well as the controversies among the modern scholars about him.

1. The traditional bio-data and its evaluation

The traditional account of the life and activities of Nimbārka is given in the Ācāryacaritam (A C) written by Śrī Nārāyaṇa Śaraṇadevācārya¹ (1760-1810 A.D.). A manuscript of the same dated Vikrama year 1917 (i.e. 1860 A.D.), belonging to Śrī **Vrajavallabha Śaraṇa** is available in the library of Śrīji Mandir, Vrindavana². A portion of it was published in 1916 A.D. from Vrindavana. This work seems to accommodate the various versions of the legends — even contrary ones connected with Nimbārka, found in the Purāṇas like Vāmana, Bhaviṣya, etc. It also quotes from a sectarian work called Audumbara-Saṁhitā, which is, now, non-extant. The A C contains also the legends and the traditional accounts of all other ācāryas of the school, beginning with Śrī Haṁsa, the swan incarnation of Viṣṇu, down to Śrī Paruśurāma devācārya. Purely from a historical point of

view, the work is of insignificant value. But it can be considered a valuable document of the faith and legends of the Nimbārka school of Vedānta in the 17th century A.D.

Tradition accepts Nimbārka as an incarnation of the Sudarśanacara of Viṣṇu for the spread of the Vaiṣṇava religion³. It is said that Brahmā, who was himself ignorant of the highest reality, requested Viṣṇu to teach the Supreme Truth to his four mānasaputras⁴ viz., Sanaka, Sananda, Sanātana and Sanatkumāra. The four sons received the ultimate wisdom from Viṣṇu, who manifested himself as a swan⁵, and they, in their turn, taught Nārada the same⁶. Nārada, for the good of the world which was still merged in darkness, imparted that knowledge to Nimbārkaⁿ. Since all the figures in the above anecdote, except Nimbārka, are mythological, the historical importance of the legend is of anybody's guess⁸.

There is no unanimity even among the followers of Nimbarka about his original name, genealogy, place of birth and works. Tradition seems to have confused various elements. To begin with, let us first consider the genealogy of Nimbārka. The AC contains at least two traditions, connected with the parentage of Nimbarka. According to one of them9. also supported by the Stotraratnāvalī¹⁰, his father was Aruna and his mother was Javanti¹¹. The other tradition ¹² considers Jagannātha as his father and Vaijayantī as his mother. This view has been partly supported by Harivyāsadeva¹³ in sofar as he considers Jagannātha as the father of Nimbārka. According to Harivyāsadeva the mother of Nimbārka was Sarasvati. From such accounts no conclusions are possible. Anyway such variations in the traditional accounts mutually reduce their credibility. Perhaps these variations may point out that the historical Nimbarka was very much cut off from the later community in which these legends and traditions around him grew.

With regard to his place of birth also we have at least two traditions. We may name them as the "Southern" and the "Northern" as they locate Nimbārka's birth place in South India or North India respectively. According to Vedāntaratanamanjūṣā¹⁴ he was born in Telinga, in the Sudarśanāśrama, which was situated on the bank of the

river Godāvarī. This tradition handed down in the Mañjūṣā is the oldest written document we have about the birth place of Nimbārka, because the author of the *Mañjūṣā* is said to be Puruṣottama, the fourth successor¹⁵ of Nimbārka. Puruṣottama himself is said to be a native of Telinga. Although tradition assigns him to the fifth century A.D. the internal evidence of his *Mañjūṣā* compels us to place him after Śaṁkara, because he is well familiar with the Advaita doctrines of Śaṁkara¹⁶.

But the Southern tradition is not unanimous in assigning Nimbārka's birth place to the Sudarśanāśrama. Some consider Muñgipattana ¹⁷ a town in Telanga to be his birth place, while others consider ¹⁸ Nimba or Nimbapur in the district of Ballary as his place of birth. Lalita Krishna **Goswami** places Nimbārka's birth at Paṇḍarpur near Vaidūryapattana on the bank of Godāvarī ¹⁹.

According to the Northern tradition Nimbarka was born In Mathura or rather right in Vrindavana, a place so intimately associated with Śrikrsna. The AC20 places Nimbarka's birth in Vrindavana, the secred spot of the Rāsalīlā which is so intimately associated with the Rādhākrsna cult. The AC21 also gives another tradition based on the Audumbara Sāmhitā which considers that Nimbarka was born in Nimbagrama near the celebrated hill Govardhana near Vrindavana. It is clear that the assignment of Nimbarka's birth place to Nimba, Nimbapur, Nimbagrāma, etc. is clearly based on nimba, a part of his name rather than any historical fact. Moreover the danger in the Northern tradition that assigns Nimbarka to Vrindavana or Govardhana is that it might have been prompted by religious consideration, since these spots are sacred for the Vaisnavas, especially for the devotees of Rādhākrsna. The Southern tradition, on the contrary, has the support of the Vedantaratna Mañjūsā, which is the oldest extant document available today on Nimbārka's birth place. Therefore the Southern tradition seems to be more probable. Besides, the special criticism of the Śāktas in the Saurabha 2.2.42-45 by Nimbarka demands that he lived at a time and place, where Śāktism was predominant so much so that he considered it necessary to refute this system. The Telinga origin of Nimbarka seems to suit such a demand since

Telinga was surrounded by places where $\acute{Saktism}$ was rampant in the Gupta and post-Gupta period²².

Even about the birthday of Nimbarka we have two traditions. According to the Siddhantakusumaniali of Harivvāsadevācārva²³, which seems to be the oldest extant document on the subject. Nimbarka was born on the third day of the bright half of the month of Vaisakha. The AC and the Audumbara Samhitā also appear to be aware of such a date of his birth²⁴. The other tradition, handed down in the AC holds that Nimbarka was born in the evening of the full moon day in the month of Kartika25. This latter tradition is more open to question because there are more theological and mythological reasons behind such a belief. For, according to the Purānas the Kārtikapurnimā is the jāgarana (awakening from sleep) day of Visnu²⁶, who has been sleeping from the 11th day of the śuklapaksa of the month of Asadha. Such a conception seems to have been prevalent at least from the Gupta period²⁷.

The Kārtikapūrnimā has another significance. It is believed among the worshippers of Rādhākṛṣṇa that in the eternal Goloka, the grand dalliance which began on Āśvinapūrnimāreaches its zenith on Kārtikapūrnimā²⁸. Since the belief assigning his birth on Kārtikapūrnimā seems to be influenced more by theological reasons, its historical value is diminished. At any rate the tradition within the school is not unanimous in considering his birth on the Kārtikapūrnimā.

Tradition gives us various names of the Ācārya. As pointed out earlier, the colophons at the end of each pāda of the Saurabha names its author as Nimbārka. Among the other traditional names Āruṇi and Jayanteya are based on his parentage²⁹. He is called Āruṇi because he is regarded as the son of Āruṇa and is called Jayanteya because his mother was called Jayantī. He is also known as Harivardhana³⁰ and Hariprīya³¹. Since he is regarded as the avatāra of the Sudarśanacakra, he is also known as Sudarśana³². He is reverently called by his disciples as Nimbārka³³, Nimbāditya³⁴, Nimbabhāskara³⁵ and Niyamānanda³⁶.

As it is evident, the names Nimbārka, Nimbabhāskara and Nimbāditya are formed out of the two words consisting

of nimba (the neem tree) and āditya or bhāskara which are synonyms of arka (sun). These names, therefore connect the Acarya with the nimba tree and the sun. It may be probable that the belief that he is the avatara of the Sudarsanacakra is based on the fact that his name contains a synonym of the sun (arka), which is so intimately connected with sudarśana. The ancient fertile Indian mind could easily weave legends connecting the nimba tree, the ācārua and the arka. We have such legends in the AC37, the Bhavisya Purāna38, etc. According to these legends, once an ascetic came to the hermitage of the sage Aruna, who was out of station. Therefore Jayanti played the host. But as it was past sunset, the guest refused to take his meals. Therefore her son approached the ascetic and requested him to be pleased to accept their hospitality, because the sun (arka) was still lingering over the yonder nimba tree. He showed the ascetic the brightly shining sun over the said tree. Therefore the ascetic obliged the hosts. But when he finished his meals, to his utter surprise he realized that it was really past midnight. Therefore the ascetic gave the boy the name "Nimbarka", because he had shown him the arka over the nimba tree long after the sunset. According to one version of the legend this visitor was Brahmā himself in the guise of a sage³⁹, while according to another version he was a mere Yati40 or a Jaina ascetic41 or even the sage Nārada42 or Ācāryapāda43 the father of Śrinivāsa, the "first disciple" of Nimbārka.

There is yet another etymological explanation of his name. It is said that he practised severe penance under a *nimba* tree, sustaining himself on the juice of its fruits only⁴⁴.

Niyamānanda is another oft-repeated name he has among the $\bar{a}c\bar{a}ryas$ of the school⁴⁵. Here also a later attempt at an etymological explanation is made. It is said that he is called Niyamānanda because he brought all people under his control or that he controlled himself, i.e., dedicated himself to the Lord through bhakti⁴⁶. Another explanation is that he controls (niyamayati) all those who have gone astray from the path of righteousness and he gladdens ($\bar{a}nandayati$) their hearts⁴⁷. According to another interpretation in the AC^{48} he

is called Niyamānanda because he expounded the *niyamas* i.e. the Vedas.

The more there are variations of his name and subsequent attempts at etymological explanations, the more sceptical one becomes in accepting all of them. Perhaps these attempts show that tradition is just trying to find a way out from uncertainties. Among these various names "Nimbarka" and its synonyms seem to be nearer the truth. not only because the colophon at the end of each pada of the Saurabha contains that name, but also from the fact that tradition attempted to build up a beautiful legend around that name. The legend seems to be an outcome of the name rather than the name an outcome of the legend. Perhaps even the belief that he is an avatāra of the Sudarsanacakra49 for the spread of the Bhaaavatadharma might have originated, not only from the fact that he was a great Bhagavata sage⁵⁰, but also from the fact that his name contained arka⁵¹ or a word meaning the sun, which is intimately connected with Visnu and his Sudarśana. Besides, as we have seen above, there are many attempts in tradition either to connect him to the nimba tree, or to assign his birth place to the Nimbagrama or to Nimbapura. These also may point out that there should be a *nimba* element in his name⁵². This fact is further supported by the written evidence of Śrinivāsa, the first commentator on the Saurabha, who calls the Saurabhakāra either as Nimbārka⁵³ or Nimbabhāskara⁵⁴.

On the other hand, Niyamānanda seems to be a favourite name for the Ācārya among many of his later disciples, starting with Puruṣottama, the author of the Manjūṣā⁵⁵. We are unable to confirm whether "Nimbārka" or any of its synonyms was the saṃnyāsa name of the Ācārya and Niyamānanda his civil name or vice versa. But if one were to make a choice between Nimbārka and Niyamānanda on the basis of objectivity, Nimbārka and its synonyms would have greater support in tradition and reason⁵⁶, besides being the epithet, contained in the colophons at the end of each pāda of the Saurabha, although these colophons seem to have been added at a later time as we have pointed out above when Nimbārka himself obtained recognition and authority among the people.

The other names such as *Hariprīya*, *Harivardhana* etc. assigned to the *Ācārya* need no special comment. They seem to be epithets rather than proper names.

2. The works attributed to Nimbarka and their authenticity

The task of determining the authentic works of a founder of an ancient system of philosophy is really a stupendous one, since there is a tendency to attribute many spurious works to the great ācāryas and founders of the schools. To prove the validity of the doctrines, developed later, it is generally accepted that it was the practice of the commentators to read them back in the authoritative text. In this way they tried to bring the doctrine to perfection. Therefore, it is reasonable to guess that some scholars or paṇḍits in the school of Nimbārka also considered it a pious duty in the interest of the Sect to attribute their own works, either directed against the opponents of the school or merely explaining the new doctrines of the Sect as originating from earlier or more famous ācāryas including Nimbārka himself⁵⁷.

(a) The SNKS is not a work of the Saurabhakāra

Therefore it needs be pointed out that it is difficult to decide the authenticity of a work merely on the strength of the colophon at the end of the work or on the strength of the introduction at the beginning of the work. We have a very well known case in this regard, in the Nimbarka Sect itself, namely the work called Saviśesanirviśesa Śrikrsnastavarāja. This work seems to be of an ancient time because three great commentaries have been written on it58 and it was held in high esteem in the Sect as an authentic work of Nimbarka until recent times⁵⁹. For the first edition of SNKS Pt. Kisoridasa, one of the great scholars of the Nimbarka Sect in modern times, used a manuscript which had an introduction "śrinandagrhe sākṣāt śrikṛṣṇam dṛṣṭvā tam stauti bhagavan nimbārkah". But when scholars like Roma Bose pointed out⁶⁰ that SNKS contains criticism of the Advaita theories of nirgunavada the doctrine that the ahamartha is not the essence of the self, drstisrstivada and the doctrine

that Brahman is the āśraya viṣaya of ajñāna, the pundits of the Sect searched for further manuscripts and were lucky to find one which did not have the introductory verse "śrīnandagrhe sākṣāt śrīkṛṣṇam dṛṣṭvā..."⁶¹. Therefore the conclusion that the Sect finally arrived at is that SNKS is a spurious work. But such a conclusion was already implicit in the findings of Roma **Bose** when she had rightly pointed out that the style of the SNKS is rather heavy and not so simple as that of the Saurabha. The SNKS also contains polemics and sectarian controversies, which are anathema for the Saurabhakāra⁶². These facts themselves are sufficient to prove the spurious nature of SNKS even if all the manuscripts contained the introduction "Śrīnandagrhe...".

The authenticity of the works attributed to an ācārya has to be tested on certain definite and non-disputable grounds. With regard to the problem of the authorship of a particular work and its dating the following three conditions may be satisfied:—

- i) The doctrine or other items referred to must be historically identifiable;
- ii) the author must be known;
- iii) The doctrine or other items referred to must be datable.

What else can offer such a norm except the *opus magnum* of the author. The test stone for any work attributed to Nimbārka is the *Vedāntapārijāta Saurabha*, the *opus magnum* of Nimbārka, which is also by all means the undisputed work of the *ācārya*. Whatever doctrine he had to teach as a Vedāntin, as a founder of a system, and as an *ācārya* of the school of Philosophy should be expounded in this *opus magnum* which is also his commentary on the *Brahmasūtras*. Therefore we can determine the authenticity of the other works attributed to Nimbārka on the basis of the following two conditions:

- 1. The other works attributed to him must not contain doctrines that are contradictory to the ones taught in this *opus magnum*. But if they do so, they can be regarded as spurious and unauthentic.
- 2. Similarly if the other works contain doctrines developed later on even within the school or elsewhere they must

be spurious, because there is always the danger that these works are attributed to the founder ācārya of the Sect in order to claim authority for them.

Kathiyababa claims that the criticisms of the Manager scale are possible.

Therefore even if some works are found mentioned in some catalogues as the original works of Nimbārka, they need not in fact be his real works. On the basis of certain catalogues Roma **Bose** considered⁶⁴ *Madhvamukhamardana* as a work of Nimbārka. In spite of her persistent efforts she was unable to see the original manuscript or a copy of it to verify her hypothesis⁶⁵. Yet she suggests that Nimbārka wrote this work in order to reduce the influence of Madhava on the people and thereby to make himself popular among them.

(b) The Madhvamukhamardana: a mistaken identity?

Now supposing that there is a real work called the Madhvanukhamardana written by Nimbārka, we are unable to say whether that deals with Madhvācārya the dvaitavādin or Madhva the Sāmkhyācārya (500 A.D) who was defeated by the Buddhist teacher Guṇamati⁶⁶. That can be decided only after the discovery of the manuscript of the Madhvanukhamardana.

Even if there was a work titled Madhvamukhamardana, it could be accepted as a work of Nimbārka only if it is found in agreement with the bhedābheda philosophy expounded in the opus magnum of Nimbārka. Until then no conclusion can be drawn from the mere mention of the Madhvamukhamardana in any catalogue against the name

of Nimbarka. Perhaps the said catalogue might be referring to the Madhvatantramukhamardana of Appaya Dixit. It is published by Ānandāśrama⁶⁷. In the absence of an extant work titled "Madhvamukhamardana" besides the extant Madhvatantramukhamardana of Appaya Dixit, all our discussions about the authorship of the former work are merely specultative and hypothetical. Therefore all that is asserted gratis could also be rejected gratis. Similar is the case with the Vedantasiddhantapradipa wrongly attributed to Nimbarka in the Notices⁶⁸. It is in fact an advaitic exposition of the Bhagavata and its author is Sukasudhi⁶⁹. In this context we may mention the Aitihyatattvarāddhānta70 and Pañcasamskāra Pramāna⁷¹ which are attributed to Nimbārka in some catalogues, but which are never accepted or venerated as works of any of the ācāryas at any time in the school of Nimbarka.

(c) Other works wrongly attributed to Nimbārka

We have other types of work, which are attributed to Nimbārka in some manuscripts, and are accepted in the school with respect. But now the authors of these works are established to be ācāryas later than Nimbārka. Examples would be the *Vedāntatattvabodha*⁷², whose author is Anantarāma, a 17th century follower of Nimbārka⁷³, and *Svadharmādhvabodha*⁷⁴ which is a work dealing with the ritualistic problems and whose author is identified as Ramācandra⁷⁵.

(d) Works venerated in the Sect

There are a few other works, which are universally attributed to Nimbārka. Today these are venerated as the original works of the ācārya. According to N.D. **Sharma**⁷⁶ they are four:

- 1. Vedāntapārijāta Saurabha
- 2. Vedānta-Kāmadhenu, also known as Daśaślokī
- 3. Mantrarahasyasodaśi
- 4. Prapannakalpavali

The list of **Kathiyababa** contains⁷⁷ three more works besides the above four works. They are the following:

1. Rādhāstakam

Krsnāstakam

3. Pratah Smaranastotram

We can leave aside the latter three works found in the list mathly abba as unauthentic, on the following grounds. The state of the earliest ācāryas or commentators has mentioned them or commented on them or commented on them or commented as the works of Nimbarka in all the Sects within the Nimbārka school as can be inferred from the fact that N.D. Sharma does not give them the same status as the other four works. The reason for attributing these works to Nimbārka seems to be to make them acceptable and popular among the followers seems to be to make them acceptable and popular among the followers. Besides, as pointed out earlier, Nimbārka was a Bhāgavata Vatṣṇava whose iṣṭadeva was Ramākānta while the content of these works is the worship of Rādhā and Kṛṣṇa who are never mentioned anywhere in the Saurabha. Therefore they cannot be the works of the Saurabhakāra.

(e) MRS and PK are later developments

Now among the remaining four works Mantrarahasyaṣoḍaśi (MRS) and Prapannakalpavali (PK) are said to be two sections of a work called Rahasyamimāmsā attributed to Nimbārka⁸⁰. The remaining portions are not available today. The Prapannakalpavali is a small work, consisting of 24 stanzas and the Mantrarahasyaṣoḍaśi, as its name indicates, consists of 16 stanzas.

The doctrine explained in the *Praparnakalpavalī* is *prapatti* (self surrender to God). It consists in the absolute dependence of the devotee on the Lord for everything and at every moment, surrendering oneself completely to the mercy of the Lord⁸¹. Anyone who longs for salvation through the *sādhanā* of self surrender must give up one's narrow feelings of individuality as an independent, self-sufficient being⁸², and giving up all other *sādhanās*⁸³, and realizing one's own utter helplessness and nothingness, must approach the *guru* for instruction⁸⁴. Having no other interest than the attainment of the Lord⁸⁵ he takes refuge in Him with his whole mind and body⁸⁶ looking upon Him as a father, mother, friend and master, as knowledge, wealth and everything⁸⁷ serving him as a son serves his father, a friend his friend and a servant his master⁸⁸. There are six factors that constitute this self-

surrender. They are⁸⁹: (a) ānukūlasya samkalpaḥ (good will to all); (b) prātikūlasya varjanam (no ill will towards any being); (c) raksiṣyati iti viśvāsaḥ (faith that the Lord will protect); (d) goptrtvavaraṇam (acceptance of him as the saviour); (e) kārpaṇyam (feeling of helplessness) and (f) ātmanikṣepaḥ (self-surrender). Of these, the principal factor (angin) is ātmanikṣepaḥ, the remaining five being only constituents (amśas).

When *one* surrenders oneself to the Lord in this fashion, the Lord is ever gracious to him⁹⁰. He protects him at all times from all harms and difficulties⁹¹. He regards him as his special ward and dearfriend and never abandons him⁹², nay, leads him with his own hands to salvation, namely, the attainment of himself⁹³. This is the gist of the doctrinal position of $Prapannakalpaval\bar{t}$.

The doctrine expounded in the *Mantrarahasyaṣoḍaśi* (*MR*), on the other hand, is *gurūpasatti* "self-surrender to one's own *guru*". This seems to be a further development of the doctrine of *prapatti* expounded in the *Prapannakalpavali*⁹⁴. Here the *guru* is considered to be the intermediary between the individual and the Lord, for, here one surrenders oneself completely, not directly to the Lord, but to one's own *guru*. It is the *guru* who leads the disciple to the Lord⁹⁵. This is considered to be the eternal and the hidden secret of all the truths. ⁹⁶ In fact the *Mantrarahasyaṣoḍaśi* is an exposition of the famous 18 syllables (*akṣara*) *gopālamantra*⁹⁷, which could be considered the most secret *gurumantra*⁹⁸ imparted by the *guru* only to the worthiest of disciples⁹⁹.

Just as the sacrificial butter is first poured in a ladle and then offered to the fire, the disciple offers himself to the Lord through his self-surrender to the guru¹⁰⁰. Through such an offering, he becomes free from the fetters of the earthly existence and attains oneness with Brahman (brahmasāyujyam)¹⁰¹. All that the disciple has to do in order to attain liberation is only to dedicate himself, heart and soul¹⁰², together with his wealth¹⁰³, and his youth¹⁰⁴, to his guru, whom he must regard as his all in all and serve him as a servant, son and a beloved and intimate friend¹⁰⁵. He must not only obey him, but also learn the sacred mantra in the manner recommended by the guru¹⁰⁶. The guru, on his part,

to impart the supreme, secret knowledge to his disciple alone and not to any one else 107.

The Prapannakalpavaliand Mantrarahasyasodasiteach manufacture pasattirespectively as the unique means of These doctrines are not in contradiction with the mention of the Saurabhakara who accepts both the need of and the importance of the auru¹⁰⁹ for But the Saurabha doctrines of Bhagavatprasāda and the need of a guru for liberation do not have all the implications of the developed doctrines of prapatti and murupasatti. The Saurabhakāra is a Vaisnavabhāsvakāra. Therefore he accepts the importance of the guru and the need of the prasada of the Lord for liberation but they do not appear to have the developed meaning of prapatti and gurupasatti as understood in the later Nimbarka Sects. For, according to the Saurabhakāra, the approach to a guru seems to be only a preliminary factor, in accordance with the ancient Upanisadic tradition, while according to Mantrarahasyasodaśi the self-surrender to a guru laurupasatti) is not only an essential factor, but also an Independent means (sādhanā) for the attainment of Brahman.

In the same way, the idea of prasāda contained in the Saurabha is far from the developed theory of prapatti. In fact the unique means for the attainment of Brahman expounded by the Saurabhakāra is vidyā¹¹⁰ obtained through dhyāna¹¹¹. The term bhakti found in the Saurabha¹¹² does not at all have the implications of premarasa, kāntābhāva etc. as understood in the later ages in the Nimbārka school. In the Saurabha the concept of bhaktimeans upāsana (meditation). In fact, according to the Saurabhakāra, Brahman becomes manifest or the direct vision of Brahman results from the prolonged and undistracted meditation on him¹¹³.

In reality, as pointed out by **Bhandarkar**¹¹⁴, the idea of prapatti and gurūpasatti as found in PK and MRS seems to be influenced by such doctrines well developed in the viśiṣṭādvaita school of Rāmānuja, especially in the Tenkalai tradition¹¹⁵. At any rate, such doctrines are not found in the Saurabha and Kaustubha. They might have come to the Sect at the time when the monastic discipline needed to be tightened up in order to face splits and revolts within the Sect.

Also to be noted is the fact that the Saurabhakāra does not speak of any secret mantra like the gopālamantra. If the gopālamantra contained the most secret and sacred essence of the Nimbārka Vedānta, the Ācārya could not at all have left it out in the Saurabha. At least he would have alluded to it.

It may incidentally be mentioned that while the Saurabhakāra denies to the Śūdras¹¹⁶ the right of Brahma jñāna — which is the only means of mokṣa according to him — the MRS and PK do not debar any group of people from Brahma jñāna through gurūpasatti and prapatti.

All these factors point out that both the MRS and PK denote a later stage of the bhaktidevelopment in the Nimbārka school of Vaiṣṇavism, which is not found in the opus magnum of Nimbārka. Therefore the attribution of these works to Nimbārka is unjustifiable.

(f) DS denotes post-Saurabha Vaiṣṇavism

Daśaśloki (DS), also known as Sidhāntaratna or Vedāntakāmadhenu is alleged to be another work by Nimbārka. It is said that he composed it for the sake of his immediate disciple, Śrīnivāsa, giving him in a nutshell the teaching of the Saurabha¹¹⁷. As the name daśaśloki indicates, it is a short work consisting of ten ślokas only. It has been commented upon by Puruṣottama¹¹⁸, Harivyāsadeva¹¹⁹ and Giridhara Prapanna¹²⁰. Today the DS has a prominent place in the Nimbārka Sect.

Since an evaluation of the content of the *DS* will help us to determine the authenticity of the claim of its being a work by Nimbārka, we undertake such an evaluation here. According to *DS* the highest Brahman is Kṛṣṇa¹²¹ attended by Rādhā¹²², who is to be meditated on at all times¹²³. There is no other means to salvation except the lotus feet of Kṛṣṇa¹²⁴. The *salvific* grace from him is extended to all those who have no qualification other than the awareness of their own helplessness¹²⁵. Through his grace, *bhakti* consisting of special love for him is generated¹²⁶.

The DS gives Rādhā a place of worship. It shows that the DS was composed only after Rādhā became an object of veneration which, as we have pointed out earlier, might have

taken place definitely, after the 10th century A.D¹²⁷. The Saurabhakara never mentions Rādhā and Kṛṣṇa by name. Its tradeva is Ramākānta Puruṣottama, who is also called Mandova. The means for the attainment of Brahman, to the Saurabhakāra is Brahmopāsana consisting meditation of him. Therefore the idea of premaviśeṣalakṣanā that is advocated in DS¹²⁸ is something foreign to the mandova the Saurabha. The idea of premaviśeṣalakṣaṇa that contained in DS 9 shows that it is composed at a later in the case of PK and MRS.

It may be pointed out against our position that Śrīnivāsa actually quotes DS 3, DS 4 and DS 7 in the Kaustubha 1.1.1 and therefore DS must be the work of Nimbārka. In our defence, we have to state the following facts. Even if the stanzas in question belong to the original Kaustubha (i.e., even if they are not later interpolations) they are borrowed by the Kaustubhakāra from some other work, because the Kaustubhakāra introduces them with the phrase yathāhuḥ....iti. Even if the entire DS, as it is understood today in its present form, was available for the Kaustubhakāra, it does not prove that they were composed by Nimbārka for the sake of teaching the essence of the Saurabha, because the doctrines of the Saurabha are quite different from those of the DS as we have pointed out above.

Secondly, if the entire DS in its present form was available to the Kaustubhakāra we cannot explain why he significantly omits the stanzas that deal with Rādhā cult and premaviśeṣalakṣanā bhakti. If it is an omission on his part, it could be a wilful omission, because nowhere in the entire Kaustubha he mentions Rādhā at all. It may also mean that Rādhā cult was not very popular in the Sect at that time.

Thirdly, as pointed out by Roma **Bose**, the entire seventh verse of DS^{129} , which is also quoted by the Kaustubhakāra, is devoted to uphold the doctrine of all cognitions of objects and the trinity of reals 130 . When a concise work like DS devotes an entire verse out of the ten to defend the doctrine of the objectivity of all cognitions, it shows that there were some, who denied it — denied the reality of our ordinary perception and the plurality of objects of perception — and insisted on the sole unity and reality of the self. It may show

that the DS was composed only after the $advaitav\bar{a}da$ of Sarinkara became popular.

It may be pointed out here that some scholars belonging to the Nimbārka Sect itself, are of the opinion that $Harivy\bar{a}sadeva$ is the actual author of the DS^{131} . Be it what it may, one thing is certain that DS contains doctrines that are not found in the Saurabha and therefore the doctrines that are found in the DS are the later development within the school of Nimbārka.

The author of the DS is well acquainted with the advaita doctrine of Śaṁkara. If the Saurabhakāra were acquainted with advaita and the māyāvāda of Śaṁkara and the author of the DS and of the Saurabha were the same ācārya we would expect him to reject Śaṁkara on more solid grounds, the occasions for which are offered to him in the Brahmasūtras themselves rather than to compose a stanza in the DS. Here what is to be emphasized is that the DS cannot be a condensation of the Saurabha because DS contains some doctrines which are not at all dealt with in the Saurabha. Therefore the author of the DS cannot be the same as the author of the Saurabha.

(g) The Saurabha is the only extant authentic work

This leaves us with the only one authentic work of Nimbārka, which is available today. That is his opus magnum, his vākuārtha on the Brahmasūtras. The followers of Nimbarka believe that the Acarya had written many more vākyārthas on other works like the Upanisads and the Gitā, but they are not available today. In fact, we find references to these lost commentaries (of Nimbarkacarva) in the writings of certain later ācāryas of the Sect. For example, Keśavakāsmīrin mentions in his bhāsyal on the Bhagavadgitā¹³² that Nimbarka wrote a vākyārtha on the Bhagavadgītā. Purusottama in his Vedāntaratnamanjūsā alludes 133 to a work called Sadācāraprakāśā attributed to Nimbārka. Sundarabhatta speaks of another work attributed to Nimbarka called *Prapatticintamani*¹³⁴. The AC¹³⁵mentions that Nimbarka wrote a commentary on the Vedas. We are unable to judge the authenticity of these works as long as these are not available for scrutiny and study. Be it as it may, one thing is certain that there is no reference to any of these works by Nimbarka himself in the *Saurabha* or by Śrinivāsa in the *Kaustubha*.

Thus when judged on the basis of the contents of Vedantapārijāta Saurabha, the extant opus magnum of Nimbārka, the authorship of the other works attributed to Nimbārka, the Saurabhakāra, is not beyond doubt. These works seem to be of later development in the Sect and attributed to the Ācārya for the sake of gaining acceptance and authority for the doctrines contained therein.

3. Tradition on the date of Nimbarka

We shall, now, examine the traditional belief about the date of Nimbārka which is summarised in the AC. It gives two accounts ¹³⁶, perhaps as a result of the amalgamation of various legends and traditions contained in the *Purāṇas* and the *Tantras*. A detailed account of these traditional beliefs on the date of Nimbārka is given in *NUS* ¹³⁷, and the *Sāra* ¹³⁸. The following verse from the *Bhaviṣyapurāṇa* contains the essence of the traditional faith:

sudarsanodvāparānte kṛṣṇajñapto janiṣyati nimbāditya iti khyāto dharmaglāniṃ hariṣyati¹³⁹

The staunchest defender of this traditional belief in modern times appears to be **Kathiyababa** ¹⁴⁰, who holds that Nimbārka was born on *Kārtikapūrņimā* in the year 15 of *Kaliyuga* ¹⁴¹. **Kathiyababa** puts froth his arguments mainly from the following sources. They are (a) the *Paurāṇic* accounts of Nimbārka, (b) the calculations made on the basis of "the average" years of the "pontifical reign" of an *ācārya* in the list of *guruparaṃparā*, inferred from certain documents, (c) the birth chart of Nimbārka. We shall briefly evaluate these arguments.

(a) Purānic references to Nimbārka are not historical documents

Some of the later *Purāṇas* such as the *Bhaviṣya* and the *Naimiṣakhaṇḍa* of the *Skandapurāṇa* contain references to Nimbārka. A.P. **Bhattacharya**¹⁴² examines these *Purāṇic* accounts and facts. According to him these accounts are later interpolations into these *Purāṇas*. At any rate these

Purānas are of very late origin and therefore their accounts of a very early origin of Nimbarka are doubtful. In his support Bhattacharva draws the attention to the fact that Nimbarka criticises the Bauddha and the Jaina philosophies in the Saurabha and therefore he cannot, on any account, be a pre-Buddha or a pre-Jain Bhāsuakāra. Kathiyababa 143 counteracts these arguments of Bhattacharya. His arguments are quite traditional. According to him the same Vedavvāsa composed all the Puranas and the Brahmasūtras at the end of the Dvaparayuga and therefore they are ancient, authentic and historical 144. Kathiyababa asserts that the criticism of the Jaina and Buddha schools by Nimbarka does not warrant his being posterior to the Sakva muni or Mahavira 145. He draws support from the description of the earlier Buddhas. The Buddhists believe that there were 120 Tathagatas before the present Buddha and there had been 800 million Buddhas in the beginningless samsara. The Jainas also hold that their doctrines are beginningless and that at the beginning of each Kalpa the eternal Jaina doctrines are taught by a particular Jaina. Therefore Nimbarka could criticize the Buddhist and the Jaina tenets even if he had been a pre-Buddha or pre-Jaina commentator. Kathiyababa strengthens his position by stating that even Kapilamuni rejects the Bauddha doctrine in his Sāmkhyapravacanasūtra. Kathiyababa wrongly believes that the original work of Kapilamuni is the Sāmkhyapravacanasūtra. Todav it is an accepted fact in the world of scholars that the Sāmkhyapravacanasūtra is a very late composition 146. The earliest available written Sāmkhya treatise is the Kārikās of Īśvarakrsna. Even if Kapila were a historical person and he wrote a Sāmkhya treatise - there is nothing wrong in such a presumption—it is not yet traced. Therefore the argument of Kathiyababa and the "traditionalists" need no special refutation because it is based on the wrong presumption that Sāmkhyapravacanasūtra is the original work of Kapila.

It must also be pointed out here that after all the *Vedāntapārijāta Saurabha* is a *vākyārtha* on the *Brahmasūtras* of Bādarāyaṇa. Therefore the author of the *Saurabha*cannot in any way be earlier than the *Brahmasūtras* themselves. Although there is a difference of opinion among modern scholars regarding the date of the *Brahmasūtras*,

nobody considers it to be earlier than 500 B.C. 147 and later than 450 A.D. 148. One thing is certain that the Brahmasūtras were composed only after the schism in the contemporary Buddhism into the Sects of Hinayana and Mahayana, for the Brahmasūtras clearly refer to the two schools of Sarvāstivāda and Mahayana¹⁴⁹. Besides the Brahmasūtras are clearly aware of the Mimāmsā sūtras of Jaimini and they presuppose the sūtras of Kanāda as well. After a critical study S.L. Pandey, has pointed out that the earliest date of the Brahmasütras cannot be earlier than 200 B.C. Since Nimbarka is a commentator on these Brahmasūtras he could not possibly have existed before 200 B.C150. Therefore all the arguments that the Jaina, Buddha philosophies are eternal or that the Pāśupata and Sākta religions are pre-historical do not prove that the vrttikara of Brahmasutras called Nimbarka existed in the year 15 of Kaliyuga (Cir, 3100 B.C.) as being held by Kathiyababa. Besides the attempt of Kathiyababa, on the basis of following stanza in the AC. 151

dharmabhrtām varistasya yudhistirasya bhubhrtah rājyād uttarakāle bhūd vajranābho nrpottamaḥ! sa śaśāsa mahābhāgo mathurāmaṇḍale mahim tadā śrīnivācāryo gurūṇām śaraṇam gataḥ

to prove that Nimbarka existed during the reign of Vajranabha, the grandson of Śrikrsna is futile. Kathiyababa presumes that the Acaryacaritam is a historical document, written by Śri Purusottama, the great-granddisciple of Nimbārka. But such a proposition is unacceptable. As pointed out earlier, the AC is written by Śrī Nārāyana Śarana devācārya (1700-1754 AD) and is a document of the faith of the Sect rather than a historical record of the deeds of the Acarya. That the AC is not an historical document is evident from the fact that it assigns Śrinivāsa to the reign of Vajranābha, the grandson of Srikrsna. Such an earlier date for Śrinivāsa is not possible because he actually quotes passages from Dharmakirti, who existed in the second half of the seventh century A.D152. For, even if the author of the AC is a Purusottama, he cannot be the fourth successor of Nimbarka, because the author of the ACis familiar with Sribhatta (the 30th successor of Nimbarka) according to the list of guruparamparā153. Therefore the author of the AC cannot be the fourth successor of Nimbarka

We may conclude that the authenticity of the accounts of an earlier existence of Nimbārka as narrated in some of the later Purāṇas is not beyond suspicion. Nor can we accept the AC account as an authentic document concerning the historical data of the ācāryas of the Nimbārka school because it places Śrīnivāsa, who actually quotes from Dharmakīrti, (7th century A.D.) as a contemporary of Vajranābha, the grandson of Śrīkṛṣṇa. Besides Nimbārka is a vṛṭtikāra on the Brahmasūtras, which cannot be dated beyond 200 B.C. Therefore Nimbārka cannot be assigned to an era beyond 200 B.C.

(b) The Guruparamparā and average life span are not objective

Another means Kathiyababa employs to prove the date of Nimbarka to be the 15th year of Kaliyuga is the "average" years of the reign of the acaryas in the Sect. Here he makes ample use of the findings of A.P. Bhattacharya based on some title deeds and donation plates connected with Śri Parasurāma and others available at the headquarters of the present Nimbārka pitha at Salemabad (Rajasthan). Bhattacharya has established 154 that the time between the four acaruas of the Nimbārka Sect namely from Keśavākāśmīri bhatta to Paraśurāmadeva was 452 years. Kathiyababa stretches 155 this evidence a little further. Here he takes support from some essays in Bhaktamāla (Samvat 2017, pp. 506-507) a periodical published from Vrindavana. According to it, the age of Keśavakāśmiri was 101 when one of the title plates was inscribed in the year Samvat 1217 (i.e. 1161 A.D) 156. The actual life span of these four acaruas becomes stretched to 552 years, which would mean that the average life span of these four ācāryas was 138 years.

Now the rest of the arguments to settle the actual date of Nimbārka is a matter of mathematics for **Kathiyababa**. According to tradition Keśavakāśmīri is the 30th $\bar{a}c\bar{a}rya$ of the Sect. If the average life span of an $\bar{a}c\bar{a}rya$ is 138 years, the grand total for the 30 $\bar{a}c\bar{a}ryas$ will be $138 \times 30 = 4140$ years. If Keśavakāśmiri was born in samvat 1117 (i.e. 1061 A.D.), the time of Nimbārka could be 4140 - 1061 = 3079 B.C. According to **Kathiyababa** such a date is also supported by the *Bhaviṣyapurāṇa* account of "Sudarśano dvāparānte" 157.

Kathiyababa appears to be bent on proving by all means and at any cost that Nimbārka belonged to the year 3079 B.C. Since the life span of the four of the ācāryas he examined was a total of 552 years (i.e. an average of 138 years for each), he assumes that all the ācāryas lived a minimum of 138 years. According to him, it was possible because the ācāryas of the Nimbārka Sect were naiṣṭhikabrahmacārins. It is to be remembered that in order to get 3079 B.C. as the probable date of Nimbārka, it is not only necessary that each ācārya had lived an average of 138 years, but that he actually reigned on the "pontifical throne" of Nimbārka for 138 years. So they became ācāryas as soon as they are born, otherwise it would mean that when one ācārya was dead, the other was just born only, and had not succeeded the dead one on "the throne of authority".

In this context, it is to be noted that **Kathiyababa** himself accepts 158 that his own guru, Śrī Santadāsa was a married man for many years. It implied not only that Śrī Santadāsa was not a *naisṭḥikabrahmacārin*, but also that there might have been similar cases in the lives of some ācāryas as well. Anyway Śrī Santadāsa reigned only for 25 years (far below the average of 138 years of reign.)

Vrajavallabha gives another list of ten generations of the ācāryas, who reigned on the throne of Nimbārka from the year 1670 Samvat to 2000 Samvat 159. It may be incidentally noted here that these ten acarvas are the immediate successors of Parasuramadeva, who figures as the terminus ad quemin the list of the four ācāryas whose years of pontificate were discussed by Kathiyababa and to whom he has assigned an average span of 138 years. Vrajavallabha makes only a modest claim that the average life span of the ācāruas was only 33 years. The differences in the calculations of Kathiyababa and Vrajavallabha prove beyond doubt that the attempt to trace the date of Nimbarka on the basis of a list of succession cannot be accurate and objective. Besides, the list of guruparamparā is open to question. First of all, such a list presupposes that Nimbarka established an ācāryapītha and that there was an unbroken succession. Secondly it is presumptuous to assume that such lists, made centuries later are objective and chronological, containing all the names of the ācāryas of the Sect, some of whom have not left any evidence for their existence either through their own work or through the work of their disciples 160.

At any rate, these attempts of **Kathiyababa** and **Vrajavallabha** serve at least one purpose, namely, they show that the inference made by **Bhandarkar**to fix the date of Nimbārka as 1162 A.D. leads us nowhere lear. **Bhandarkar** himself was aware that on essential points, the manuscript, on which he based his calculations was not very clear. He states "this calculation of ours is of course very rough and, besides, the date of the manuscript No. 706, which is read as 1913 by some, but which looks like 1813, conflicts with this calculation, as nine more ācāryas flourished after Dāmodara. And if 1813 is the correct date, seven years cannot suffice for them, though 107 may, if the date is read 1913". It may be pointed out here that there is no mention of a Dāmodara Goswamin as a disciple of Harivyāsadeva, in any other lists of succession available among the followers of Nimbārka.

N.D. Sharma 162 questions the very basis of Bhandarkar who considers Dāmodara, who according to the latter lived in the year 1750 A.D. as a successor to Harivyāsadeva, because among all the present day Sects and sub-sects belonging to Harivyāsadeva, there is no mention of a Dāmodara Goswāmin among the ācāryas belonging to 1750 A.D. as none of the 12 disciples of Harivyāsadeva was called Dāmodara. Besides, according to N.D. Sharma the existence of Paraśurāma, the immediate disciple of Harivyāsadeva, in the 16th century A.D. is well documented (Cf. Kṛṣṇagarhrājya ke aitīhāsīka sūtra, Nimbārka-sodha maṇḍala, Vrindavana p. 17). Therefore any list of succession that makes Harivyāsadeva belong to 17th or 18th century A.D. is unacceptable.

It might not, perhaps, be wrong for **Bhandarkar** to assign 18 years each for a generation in the matter of succession in the Madhva Sect, because the *ācāryas* of that Sect are generally married men. They ascend to "the throne of authority" only when they are advanced in age. The *ācāryas* of the Nimbārka Sect, on the contrary, are generally speaking naiṣṭhikabrahmacārins ¹⁶³ and they have better chance of succession in a younger age, which also means a longer span

of years on the acaryapitha. Therefore the truth may lie somewhere between the average of 18 years that Bhandarkar assigns and 30 years that Vrajavallabha assigns to each ācārya of the Sect 164. But even then a hypothetical inference made on the basis of a list of succession, conjured at a later date when conflicts and fights arose within the Sect for legitimacy and authority, need not be factual. In fact we must take these lists of guruparamparas with "a big pinch of salt" because we have no documentation for some of the ācāryas whose names figure in the lists, which are made by Sects and sub-sects within the school, in order to demonstrate their connection with Nimbarka. It is also possible that the chain of succession was broken under unfavourable religious and political conditions. Since the list of succession is made at a very late period there is also the possibility of leaving out the names of some legitimate ācāryas of the Nimbārkapītha. Therefore we may conclude that the calculations made on the basis of such guruparamparas by Kathiyababa, Vrajavallabha, Bhandarkar, etc. are not objective and conclusive

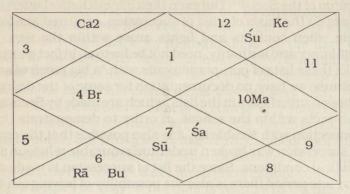
(c) The birth-chart of Nimbārka are expressions of faith

The third type of proof brought by the traditionalists is based on the horoscope of Nimbārka, with the help of which they settle the star, the day, the month and the year of the birth of Nimbārka. The basis, on which the horoscope of Nimbārka is made, is the following passage in the Bhaviṣyapurāṇa¹⁶⁵

atha sarvaguṇopete kāle paramaśobhane kārtikasya site pakṣe pūrṇimāyām¹⁶⁶ vṛṣe vidhau kṛttikābhe mahāramye uccasthe grahapańcake sūryāvasānasamaye meṣalagne niśāmukhe jayantyām jayarūpiṇyām jajāna jagadīśvaraḥ yena sarvam idam viśvam vedadharme niyojitam.

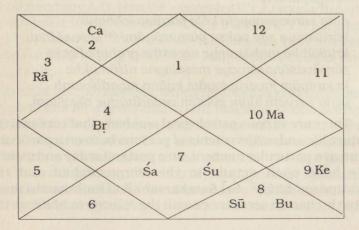
There are various astrological samhitās that contains the future life and achievements of persons born on a particular star, at a particular moment, on a particular day and month. We have such details in the Bhṛgusamhitā and the Rāvaṇasamhitā¹⁶⁷. Śrī Samkarsanaji of Kathmandu made a birth-chart in accordance with the Rāvaṇasamhitā on the

basis of the details given about the birth of Nimbārka in the *Bhaviṣyapurāṇa*. This birth-chart, reproduced in *NUS* by **Vrajavallabha**¹⁶⁸, is given below:



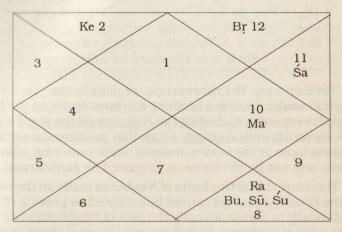
According to the judgement of M.D. **Pandit**, (Centre for Advanced Study in Sanskrit, University of Poona, Pune), this chart is absolutely wrong ¹⁶⁹ because śukra and sūrya are given as being ṣaḍaṣṭaka yoga, which is impossible. Sūrya and Śukra at the most make an angle of 60° and never above 60°.

Kathiyababa got another birth-chart, made on the basis of the same *Bhaviṣyapurāṇa* account by Haricarana Smrti tirtha of Bhātapādā. It has been read in accordance with the *Bhṛgusaṃhitā* by Pandit Umesh Chandra Sharma of Varanasi¹⁷⁰. It reads:



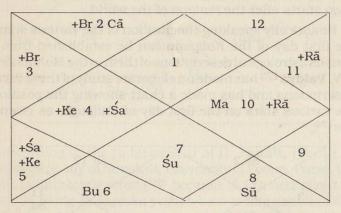
On the basis of this birth-chart, **Kathiyababa** and the traditionalists say that Nimbārka was born in the 15th year of Kaliyuga (Cir. 3085 B.C.). Now, the beginning of the Kaliyuga can be considered either historically (i.e. on the basis of the Paurāṇic descriptions) or astronomically: historically the scholars consider 171 the end of the Mahābhārata war as the beginning of Kaliyuga 172 and astronomically speaking a yuga starts after the Pralaya of the world.

Historically speaking the position of the various stars on the first day of the *Kaliyuga* can be established from the various astrological descriptions of them in the *Mahābhārata*. C.V. **Vaidya**¹⁷³ has made an elaborate study of these various descriptions and has made a chart showing the position of the various stars on the first day of *Kaliyuga*, as given below 174.



If this chart of **Vaidya**, made on the basis of the description of the stars in the *Mahābhārata* is correct then the horoscope of Nimbārka, made by **Haricarana Smrtitirtha** cannot be accepted. The time gap between the horoscope made for the first day of *Kaliyuga* by **Vaidya** and the one made for the 15th year of *Kaliyuga* by **Haricarana Smrtitirtha** must be more than 15 years. This would mean that either the description of the stars, given in the *Mahābhārata* is wrong or the horoscope of Nimbārka made by **Haricarana** is wrong. Granting that the positions of *Sūrya*, *Budha*, *Śukra*, *Mangala* and *Candra* are the same as given in the horoscope of

Nimbārka, made by **Haricarana** the position of Śani, Rāhu, Ketu and Brhaspati will not tally with those given by the astrologer of Bhatapada. If the chart of the planetory positions on the first day of Kaliyuga made by **Vaidya**, on the basis of the various astrological descriptions in the Mahābhārata, is correct, then the planetory position in the 15th year of Kaliyuga will be as follows 175.



Neither can the horoscope of Nimbārka made by **Haricarana**be accepted because astronomically on the first day of every *yuga*, including the *Kaliyuga* all the stars are in the *mesarāśi* (initial stage). From this position the various planets move at the *madhyamāgati*. Their positions, after 15 years, will not be the same as proposed by **Haricarana**.

Therefore the birth-charts of Nimbārka made on the basis of the *Bhaviṣyapurāṇa* cannot be accepted as proving either historically or astronomically the date of Nimbārka to be the 15th year of *Kaliyuga*. In fact the very basis of these charts, namely, the *Bhaviṣyapurāṇa* account given above, is not beyond suspicion, because the account given by the *Bhaviṣyapurāṇakāra* seems to originate from his faith rather than from facts. He acknowledges Nimbārka as the *Jagadīśvara*, who has taken the human birth in order to bring back the world to the path of righteousness¹⁷⁶. Therefore he has to place the birth of Nimbārka at the best of the times¹⁷⁷. Consequently it must be said that the historical value of such accounts is uncertain and they cannot be the basis of an argument to prove the exact birth date of Nimbārka.

Conclusion

Acritical evaluation of the traditional account on Nimbārka makes us accept that the Southern tradition about him appears to be more historical because it has less theological and religious considerations. Perhaps it may be possible to arrive at a more genuinely historical date of Nimbārka by divesting tradition of the mythological and theological elements.

Our study enables us to conclude that the Saurabhakāra cannot be considered as the author of all the other works traditionally attributed to him. Some of these works are spurious while others belong to a later stage of development in the Vaisnava bhakti movement.

Finally it is also pointed out that the belief that Nimbārka lived in the year 15 of Kaliyuga, defended on the basis of certain Purāṇic references to Nimbārka as well as on the basis of certain horoscopes made on the basis of those references cannot be accepted. Nimbārka, a vṛttikāra on the Brahmasūtras cannot be assigned to a period prior to the composition of the Brahmasūtras themselves. It is also proved that the method of assigning an average life span to each of the ācāryas in the list of guruparamparā cannot give us any definite conclusions on the date of Nimbārka because there is no valid criterion to determine the average life span.

Chapter 3

MODERN SCHOLARS ON THE DATE OF NIMBARKA

Introduction

There is no unanimity among modern scholars on the date of Nimbarka. Some of them have attempted to solve the problem of his date with the help of guruparamparā and by assigning an average life span varying from 12 to 30 years for each of the ācāryas in the list of succession. None of them has seriously questioned either the authenticity of the various guruparamparās or the belief that the Saurabhakāra is also the author of the works attributed to him. As we have pointed out earlier these lists of succession cannot be accepted as true records of succession to the throne of Nimbārka. Nor can we accept the traditional position that the Saurabhakāra is also the author of other works like daśaśloki etc. It has also been pointed out above that these works contain not only doctrines that are not expounded in the Saurabha but also those that developed at later stages in the Vaisnava schools. Overlooking these two draw backs, many of the modern scholars have gone astray in their attempt in placing Nimbarka to a particular period in history.

1. Three views of the modern scholars

The opinions of modern scholars on the date of Nimbārka. can be roughly classified into three categories. The first

places him posterior to Rāmānuja¹, the second group posterior to Bhāskara, and the third group, mostly of the scholars belonging to Nimbārka places him prior to Śamkara.

1. The Saurabhakāra cannot be post-Madhva

Prominent scholars among the first group are R.G. Mhandarkar², Roma Bose³ and Dattatraya Dhundiraj Kaylayara⁴, Bhandarkar relies mostly on the guruparampara, a list of which he got during his search for manuscripts⁵. We have sufficiently demonstrated that on the basis of the muruparampara we cannot arrive at a convincing conclusion on the date of Nimbarka, Besides Bhandarkar seems to have made a hasty conclusion without making a thorough examination of the lists of succession in various Sects within the Nimbarka schools⁶. Roma **Bose** bases her arguments on two spurious works attributed to Nimbarka to settle the date of Nimbarka. We have already pointed out the spurious nature of Savisesanirvisesasrikrsnastavarāja and the nonexistence of Madhvamukhamardana on which Roma Bose bases her arguments to show that Nimbarka must have existed after Madhva. Her position needs no special refutation because these are not Nimbarka's works. But some others like Dasgupta⁷ place Nimbarka after Madhva because of the fact that the Sarvadarśana Samaraha does not mention Nimbarka and his school. But it has to be pointed out that merely on that ground it does not necessarily follow that Nimbārka lived only after the Sarvadarśanakāra. In fact it means only that the school of Nimbarka was not popular in the surroundings of the Sarvadarsanakara, so that he did not feel it necessary to include the system in his work, just as he did not include the aupādhika bhedābhedavāda of Bhāskara or the ajātavāda of Gaudapāda. On that ground, nobody denies the antiquity of Bhāskara or Gaudapāda to the Sarvadarśanakāra. In this context, it is to be noted also that the Sarvadarśanasamaraha is not meant to be a history of philosophy. Nor has the author given any importance to historical priority and posteriority of the schools that he discusses there. He has chosen only those schools and ācāryas who appealed to his purpose. Perhaps the Vrtti style of the Saurabha and the fact that it lacked any polemics

against other schools of Vedānta, deprived the *Saurabha* the chance of an explicit mention in the works of other schools. Indeed, the school of Nimbārka, came to be taken note of by others only when the school took to the path of polemics and controversies with other schools and systems.

3. The Saurabha not influenced by Rāmānuja

The modern scholars among the followers of Nimbārka, who accept that the Saurabhakāra is also the author of other works attributed to him, are unable to refute the allegation of **Bhandarkar** and others that Nimbārka is very much influenced by Rāmānuja. Concerning the alleged influence of Rāmānuja on Nimbārka, I would like to make a few distinctions. I accept that there might be some truth in their opinion that the ideas of *prapatti* and *gurūpasatti* found in *PK* and *MRS* would be a clear sign of the influence of the *Rāmānuja Vaiṣṇavism* on the *Nimbārka Vaiṣṇavism*.

But as I have mentioned earlier *PK* and *MRS* cannot be accepted as the works of the Saurabhakāra. Besides, the doctrines of *prapatti* and *gurūpasatti* are not at all found in the *Saurabha*, the *opus magnum* of Nimbārka. At the same time, it is difficult for me to agree with the contention of scholars like S.N. **Dasgupta** who state "an internal analysis of Nimbārka's philosophy shows its great indebtedness to Rāmānuja's system and even the style of Nimbārka's *bhāṣya* in many places shows that it was modelled upon the style of approach adopted by Rāmānuja in his *bhāṣya*"8.

First of all, it is important to note that Nimbārka was a Vaiṣṇava commentator. As a Vaiṣṇava commentary on the Brahmasūtra, the Saurabha may contain a lot of concepts similar to those of other Vaiṣṇava commentaries on the Brahmasūtras, including the Śrībhāṣya of Rāmānuja. Yet it must be pointed out that there is no influence of the lengthy, logical and polemical style of the Śrībhāṣya on the Saurabha. The Saurabhakāra seems to be satisfied with short explanations of the sūtra in a few words, often with a quotation from the vedic literature or the Bhagavadgītā or one of the earliest Purāṇas or the Mahābhārata. He avoids all the polemics against the fellow Vedāntins.

Secondly, as shown earlier, Nimbārka was a Bhāgavata

Vasudeva Vaisnava and Ramanuja was a Pancaratra Narayana Vaisnava. While Rāmānuja attempts to establish that Sriman Narayana is the ultimate reality, Nimbarka considers Ramakanta Purusottama Vasudeva as the Brahman. He avoids much of the sectarian mentality that is motionable in Ramanuja. Therefore, although both of them were Valsnavas there is a world of difference in their understanding of the concepts of Brahman, jiva and the world. The Saurabhakara is unaware of a heaven called Vaikuntha or Goloka. He speaks of it merely as visistasthana9 or in conformity with the Upanisadic tradition as the Brahmaloka 10. To demonstrate that there are differences in their understanding of the basic concepts, in spite of the similarities, we may take as an example the Bhasya of Nimbarka and Ramanuja on BS 1-3.22 anukrtes tasua. The former takes this shire as referring to Mundaka 2.2.10 (Cf. also Katha 5. 15) tam eva bhántam anubhátt sarvam tasua bhásá sarvam Mam withatt. Whereas the latter considers the sūtra as referring to Mundaka 3.1.3, "uadā pasuah pasuate nıkmavarnam kartaram isam purusam brahmayonim tadā vidvan punyapape vidhūya nirahjanah paramam sāmyam upatt. Nimbarka's explanation amounts to the demonstration that there is dependence of the soul on the Lord for its activity in conformity with the more ancient tradition of the Bhagavadgitā. The individual soul is only an anukartā, a follower. The relation of the soul to the ultimate Purusa seems to be like the relation of the moon to the sun. When He shines the soul also shines after Him. We are just instruments in God's hands. Rāmānuja seems to consider soul as similar (samua) to god. That would mean that the soul can act like God in a small way. Therefore it can be said with certainty that there is no compelling reason at all to suspect any influence of Rāmānuja on the Saurabhakāra.

4. Rāmānuja criticises bhedābhedavāda

It may also be stated that while there is no reference whatsoever to the Viśiṣṭādvaita of Rāmānuja in the entire Saurabha, there are instances both in the Vedārtha Saingraha and in the Śrībhāṣya where Rāmānuja, in his polemics, attacks the bhedābhedavāda of Nimbārka. According to Nimbārka the relationship between Brahman and the jīva is

one of *bhedābheda* based on *aṁsāṁsī* relation. Nimbārka expounds this doctrine under *sūtras* 1.1.4; 2.1.13; 2.1.22; 2.3.42 and 3.2.27 and 28. Such a *bhedābheda* doctrine is not acceptable to Rāmānuja. He says:

trtiye'pi pakse¹¹ jivabrahmnorbhedavad abhedasya cābhuupagamāt, tasya ca tad bhāvāt saubharibhedavat svāvatārabhedavacca sarvasyesvarabhedatvāt sarve jīvagatadosās tasyaiva syūh etad uktam bhavati īśvarah svarūpenaiva suranara tiryak sthāvarādi bhedenāvasthita iti hi tadātmakatvavarnanam kriyate tathā satu ekamrtpindarabdhaghata śarvadigatanyudakaharanadini sarvakāryāni yathā tasyaiva bhavanti evam sarvajīvagata sukhaduhkhādi sarvamīśvaragatam eva syād itii. ahatakarakādi samsthānānupayuktamrd dravyam yathā kāryāntarānanvitam, evam eva surapasumanujādi jivatvānupayukteśvarah sarvajňah satyasamkalpatvādi kalyāṇaguṇākara iti cet - satyam, sa eveśvara ekenāṁśena kalyānagunākarah sa evānyenāmsena heyagunākara ity uktam, dvayor amsayor isvaratvāvisesāt. dvāvamsau vyavasthitāviti cet — kas tena lābhah ekasyaivekenāmsena nityaduhkhitvāt, amśantarena sukhitvam api neśvaratvāya devadattasyaiksmin uathā kalpate. candanapankānulepah keyurakatakānguliyālamkārah, tasuaivānuasmin haste mudgārābhighātah kālānalajvālānupraveśasca, tad vad evešvarasya syād iti brahma jñānapaksād api pāpi jānayam bhedābhedapaksa 12.

The bhedābheda doctrine of the Saurabhakāra 13 is specified by Śrīnivāsa as the svābhāvika bhedābhedavāda, perhaps to distinguish it from other types of bhedābhedavāda like the aupādhika bhedābhedavāda of Bhāskara. Rāmānuja finds fault with svābhāvika bhedābhedavāda when he says:

"bhedābhedavāde tu brahmaņyevopādhi samsargāt tatprayuktā jīvagatā doṣā brahmanyeva syur iti nirastanikhilodoṣakalyāṇa guṇātmakabrahmātmabhāvopadeśā hi virodhād eve parityaktāḥ syuḥ svabhāvikabhedābhedavāde' pi brahmaṇaḥ svata eva jīvābhāvābhyupagamāt guṇavad doṣas ca svābhāvika bhaveyur iti nirdoṣa brahmatādātmyopadeśo viruddha eva"14.

From the above references it is evident that Rāmānuja seems to be posterior even to Śrīnivāsa, the subcommentator

on the Saurabha. It also appears that Nimbārka had already become an authority on religious matters by the 12th century A.D. for, Hemādri quotes the following passage alleged to be from Bhaviṣyapurāṇa¹⁵.

"Nimbarko bhagavān yeṣām vāñchitārtha pradāyakaḥ udayavyāpiṇi grāhyā kule tithir upoṣane" ¹⁶.

In this context it may also be pointed out that the followers of Nimbarka claim¹⁷ that they have certain title deeds (paṭṭa) and inscriptions dated 1169 A.D., today preserved at the Nimbarkapītḥa Salemābad, on the basis of which it can be established that Keśavakāśmirin Bhaṭṭa, the alleged 30th nuccessor of Nimbārka lived in the 12th century A.D.¹⁸.

5. Even Bhāskara is aware of the Saurabha

Perhaps we need not dwell much longer to prove the pre-Rāmānuja date of the Saurabha¹⁹ because even Bhāskara seems to be aware of Nimbārka's Saurabha. An instance of such an awareness on the part of Bhāskara is evident in his interpretation of BS 1.1.32: Jīvamukhyaprāṇa liṅgānneti cet nopāsātraividhyād āśritatvād iha tadyogāt²⁰. He gives two alternative interpretations one of which is his own, modelled after the position of Śaṁkara. The second is identical to the one given by Nimbārka. Bhāskara acknowledges that this second view is of others. Let us compare them.

Nimbārka

....upāsakatāratamyena brahmopāsanāyās traividhyāj-jīvavargāntar - yāmitvena prāṇādy acetanāntaryāmitvena tadubhaya vailakṣaṇyene cānyatrāśritatvād ihāpi tad yogāt.

Bhāskara

...apare tu trividham upāsanam iha vivaksitam iti sūtrārtham varņayanti. prāņopāsanam jīvopāsanam brahmopāsanam iti. etad uktam bhavati prāņa dharmeņa svardharmeņa tulyopāsyam iti...

Amore convincing proof for the pre-Bhāskara existence of Nimbārka is provided by Bhāskara himself, at the end of his bhāsya on BS 1.2.15: Sukhaviśiṣṭābhidhāṇād eva ca. But Bhāskara points out that some others who read an extra

sūtra: "ata eva ca tad brahma" here do it unnecessarily because it is already contained in the previous sūtra. Here is what he had to say: atrāvasare 'ta eva tad brahmeti sūtram anye patḥanti. tat punar gatārtham iti anyair nābhidīyate.

Among the known Bhāsyakāras only Nimbārka, Śrinivāsa and Śrikantha read the sūtra "ata eva ca tad brahma" here, while Rāmānuja following his Bodhāyāna tradition reads the sūtra as ata eva ca sa brahma. Thus there is a difference in the reading of the sūtra according to Bodhāvāna tradition. Now, among these bhasvakaras, it is universally accepted that Rāmānuja and Śrikantha are post-Bhāskara commentators. Therefore until contrary evidences are brought forward, it can be taken as a matter of fact that Bhaskara is referring to Nimbarka and his tradition21, who alone read the sūtra as alleged by Bhāskara. It cannot be claimed that Bodhayana and his school are referred to by Bhaskara here, because the Bodhayana tradition contained in the Śribhasya of Rāmānuja has, as we have said above, a different reading of the sūtra. Therefore it can be safely concluded that Bhāskara is a post-Nimbārka bhāsyakāra.

We may reinforce our conclusion with another criticism of the Nimbārka tradition by Bhāskara under sūtra 2.3. 31: nityopalabdhyanupalabdhiprasaṅgo' nyataraniyamo vā' nyathā 22 . Nimbārka considers that this sūtra. is meant to point out the defect in the doctrine of an all-pervasive soul. He says:

sarvagatātmavāde ātmopalabdhyanupalabdhyor bandhamokṣayor nityam prasaṅgaḥ syānnityabaddho vā nityamukto vā, tmety anyataraniyamo vā syāt²³.

It is evident from the Saurabha²⁴ that the sarvagatātmavādins for Nimbārka are the followers of Kapila. He does not show any awareness of any Vedāntins holding sarvagatātmavāda²⁵. Bhāskara on the other hand, considers the real nature of the jīva is Sarvagata (all-pervasive) although, due to the upādhis the jīva is atomic in the state of bondage²⁶. Since he is a Sarvagatātmavādin he has to defend the sarvagatātmavāda. He says: "ātmavibhutvavādinām doṣakathanārtham sūtram iti vyākhyātam tad ayuktam". Accordingly he maintains that the purpose of the sūtra is the rejection of Buddhist theo-

ries²⁷. In his *bhāsya* on this *sūtra* he seems to say that after all the *sarvagatātmavāda* is not that defective as Nimbārka would have it, if we accept the implications of the doctrine of *upādhi* on the *sarvagatātmavāda*²⁸.

Conclusion

The Vedāntapārijāta Saurabha of Nimbārka does not show any influence of fellow Vaiṣṇava commentators of the Brahmasūtras on him. On the contrary, these Vaiṣṇava commentators like Rāmānuja and Bhāskara seem to be aware of the doctrines expounded in the Saurabha. The above evidences point out that Bhāskara is aware of the position of the Saurabhakāra on a number of issues, which compels us to place the Saurabhakāra in the pre-Bhāskara period. But can Nimbārka be placed to a pre-Śamkara period? A comparative study of the Saurabha with the Śāmkarabhāṣya will help us to determine the exact date of Nimbārka more accurately. Therefore such a study is taken up in the next chapter.

Chapter 4

NIMBĀRKA: A PRE-ŚAMKARA VŖTTIKĀRA

Introduction

We have already seen that there are some strong reasons to assign the Saurabhakāra to a pre-Rāmānuja and even to a pre-Bhāskara era. In this chapter we examine whether Saurabhakāra is also a pre-Śamkara vrttikāra.

It goes without saying that Samkarācārya created a Copernican revolution in the interpretation of the Upanisads and *Brahmasūtras*. In the post-Samkara period, no commentator intending to establish his own school could afford to ignore Śamkara because his *Advaitavāda* had, in fact, dethroned some of the contemporary powerful schools of thought in the country, and ever remained the subject of controversy and admiration as well among the intellectuals of the land. Therefore no founder of a school, after Śamkara had formulated his Advaita doctrine, could ever ignore him, even from the point of view of survival.

1. Nimbarka unaware of Śamkarite theories

The most striking aspect of the *Saurabha* is that it is completely unaware of any of the Śāṁkarite theories. This is all the more significant in those places where we would naturally expect him to take note of the Śāṁkarite theories, had he been a post-Śāṁkara commentator. But the fact is

that in such places he discusses some other theories of pre-Śāṁkara schools. Here we may examine an instance, namely, the commentary of Nimbārka on BS 2.3.49. Ābhāsā eva ca¹. Nimbārka interprets the sūtra as follows:

pareṣām kapilādīnām vyatikara prasangāt sarvagatātmavādās' cā'bhāsā eva².

Nimbārka, like the other *bhāṣyakāras*, has been discussing the nature of the jīva in this *pāda*. After establishing that the jīva is an *anu³* and is an *amśa* of *Brahman⁴* Nimbārka points out that the *sarvagatātmavāda* of the opponents like Kapila and others is fallacious because in their view, there will result the confusions of the Karmas of the soul.

Under this sūtra Śamkara develops his famous doctrine of pratibimbavāda. Śamkara takes pain to explain that the doctrine of the all-pervasive-soul is not that defective after all, for he himself accepts such a doctrine with certain modifications. According to him the jīva is only a reflexion of Brahman on the illusory mirror of ignorance, like the reflexion of the sun on the water. Through the pratibimbavāda Śamkara seems to answer the objection of mingling of Karmas' that Nimbārka raised against the theory of the sarvagatātmavāda⁵. Śamkara's defence as well as the conclusion is that once we accept the pratibimbavāda, there is no fusion of karmas as Nimbārka charges against the upholders of the all-prevasive soul. In Śamkara's own words:

ataś ca yathā naikasmin jala sūryake kampamāne jalasūryakāntaram kampate, evam naikasmin jīve karmaphala sambandhini jīvāntarasya tat sambandhaḥ evam apy avyatikara eva karmaphalayoh. ābhāsasya cāvidya krtatvāt tad āśrayasya samsārasyāvidyākrtatvopapattiriti, tad vyudāsena ca pāramārthikasya brahmātma bhāvasyopadeśopapattiḥ6

Later on Śaṁkara declares that the doctrine of the all pervasive soul as upheld by the Sāṁkhyas and the Vaiśeṣikas is defective. An important point to be noted here is that Nimbārka is unaware of the *pratibimbavāda* of Śaṁkara and his arguments against the theories of Sāṁkhyas and Vaiśeṣikas. According to Nimbārka the individual souls are atomic by nature and are parts of the all-pervasive being⁷. The

jīvas have all-pervasiveness as an attribute due to the attribute of knowledge, but they do not have all-pervasiveness as their nature⁸. It must be pointed out that, if Nimbārka had been aware of the *Bhāṣya* of Śāṁkara, he could have been influenced by the masterly criticism of the Śāṁkhya doctrines made here by Śaṁkara, and that he would not have limited himself to a mere statement that the doctrine of all-pervasive soul as held by the Sāṁkhyas causes confusion (vyatikara prasaṅgaḥ) of karma.

All the other major commentators like Rāmānuja, Bhāskara and Śrikantha criticise the *pratibimbavāda* of Śamkara. Bhāskara "the non-believing follower", as it were, of Śamkara, attacks the Śamkarite doctrine of *pratibimbavāda*, when he says:

"apare tvābhāsa ena cety ekavacanāntam sūtram pathitvā anyam artham varņayanti paramātmābhāso jīvah pratibimbātmā samsāryāvidyāparikalpitah tasya parimitatvād asantateravyatikara iti. tad ayuktam..."

Rāmānuja gives two readings of the sūtra, one in agreement with Samkara (ābhāsah) and the other with Nimbārka (ābhāsā). According to the first reading he rejects as a simple fallacy the theory that Brahman, whose nature is absolute intelligence is differentiated by limiting adjuncts (upādhi) or avidyā, which presupposes an obscuration of that essential nature. According to the second alternate reading of this sūtra, he demonstrates that the various reasons set forth by the adherents of that doctrine are all fallacious. Here Rāmānuja seems to borrow from Śamkara's criticism of the Samkhya and applies the same against Samkara himself. He interprets "ca" in the sūtra as pointing out that such a doctrine is in conflict with the scriptural texts, showing difference between Brahman and jiva9. Thus, in a three fold way, he rejects the Samkarite theory of pratibimbavada. As a final assault against the pratibirhbavāda he declares that even if the difference is due to upādhis, which are the figments of nescience, there is no escaping the conclusion that the sphere of experience must be mixed up, since the theory admits that the thing itself with which all the limiting adjuncts connect themselves is one only 10. Thus Rāmānuja directs all his energies to reject the Samkarite theory of an illusory appearance of jiva.

Śrīnivāsa like his *guru*, Nimbārka, does not refute the Śaṁkarite theory of *pratibiṁbavāda*, because, as will be pointed out in the next chapter, the *Kaustubha* is not an independent commentary on the *BS*, but is meant to explain the doctrinal position of Nimbārka. According to him the *sūtra* means:

"kapilakaṇādādīnām sarvagatātmavādās tu ābhāsā eva nirmūlatvāt tatra sarvavyavahāravyatikaraprasaṅāac ca. ca śabdena teṣām jagatvyāmohakatvam sūcitam"

Perhaps the only influence of Śaṁkara on Śrīnivāsa is seen in the fact that he criticises the *Vaiśesikas* also as upholders of *sarvagatātmavāda* as done by Śaṁkara.

Thus among the major <code>bhāṣyakāras</code> Nimbārka alone uses this <code>sūtra</code> exclusively against the Sāṁkhya doctrine¹¹. Independent post-Śaṁkara commentators like Bhāskara, Rāmānuja, etc. make use of this <code>sūtra</code> to refute the Śaṁkarite theory of <code>pratibiṁba</code> rather than the Sāṁkhya theory, because their main opponents and the chief upholders of the doctrine of <code>ātmavibhuvāda</code> are Śaṁkara and his followers rather than the forgotten Kapila. We could expect Nimbārka to oppose Śaṁkara here, had he been a post-Śaṁkara <code>bhāṣyakāra¹²</code>. One thing seems to be certain that Nimbārka is unaware of the controversy on <code>pratibimbavāda</code> between Śaṁkara and the later <code>bhāṣyakāras</code>, among whom Rāmānuja is the chief exponent.

It must be noted that not only is Nimbārka unaware of Śaṁkara and his theories but also that there are many instances where Śaṁkara seems to be aware of Nimbārka, especially where he seems to consider the doctrines so dear to Nimbārka as the pūrvapakṣa. We will now examine a few such instances.

2. Nimbārka is the Pūrvapakṣin of Śaṁkara

In the philosophical treatises of India, as is the case elsewhere also, the opinion of the *pūrvapakṣin* plays a very important role for a lucid exposition of the real doctrine of the *siddhāntin*. It is quite possible that occasionally the *bhāṣyakāras* create an imaginary *pūrvapakṣa¹³* in order to

explain their own siddhānta in a more systematic, comprehensive and compact manner. As far as the BS is concerned, it is well known that the Sūtrakāra considered certain views as that of the pūrvapakṣa, although as far as the commentators are concerned, there is no unanimity in ascertaining the exact nature of the pūrvapakṣa, or the siddhānta that the Sūtrakāra has in mind 14. This difference is often due to the sectarian conflicts within the different schools of the Vedānta system. In this respect Śamkara seems to be the first commentator to consider the opinion of some early Vedāntins as the pūrvapakṣa.

(a) Pre-Śamkara vr.ttikāras

In almost all his commentaries Śaṁkara shows his familiarity with the earlier philosophers and their vritis on the BS and the Upaniṣads 15. Some of them he considers as the pūrvapakṣin although they themselves were Yedāntins like himself 16. That there were more than one vritikāra on BS before Śaṁkara is also clear from the writings of Padmapāda, his disciple 17. Padmapāda refers four times to two pre-Śaṁkara vritikāras 18. These may denote four former vritikāras as proposed by G.V. Buddhakar 19 or only two as opined by S.L Pandey 20. On the basis of Padmapāda's references one may even propose the existence of eight pre-Śaṁkara vritikāras. At any rate, there is no unanimity among the later followers of Śaṁkara about the identification of the pre-Śaṁkara vritikāras 21. They in fact seem to be confused in their identifications 22.

Scholars have attempted to identify some of these pre-Samkara vṛṭṭṭkāras. M. Hiriyanna²³ has reconstructed what he claims to be the philosophical tenets of Bhartṛprapañca from the stray reference to the doctrine of an earlier vṛṭṭṭkāra by Śaṁkara in his Bṛḥadāraṇyakabhāṣya. M.T. Sahasrabuddhe²⁴ and S.L. Pandey²⁵ have made a comprehensive survey of some of the pre-Śaṁkara Vedāntins and their doctrines from references made to them by Śaṁkara and the later ācāryas. Some of their identifications of the pre-Śaṁkara vedāntins could be wrong because first of all Śaṁkara does not identify any of these earlier vṛṭṭṭkāras by name. Secondly, the commentators of the Śaṁkarite school, as we have mentioned earlier, are not unanimous in holding

that Śamkara was referring to a particular school or vṛṭṭtikāra. Thirdly, no original work of these earlier vṛṭṭtikāras is extant today. Fourthly, the account given by Śamkara of some of these vṛṭṭtikāras is not sufficient to reconstruct their philosophies with accuracy.

Although a complete identification of these <code>vrttikāras</code> is not possible, we can have a comparatively fair knowledge of the philosophical schools of pre-Śamkara days, from Śamkara's own criticism of their doctrines in his various <code>bhāsyas</code>. He normally offers a faithful and rational exposition of the views of his <code>pūrvapakṣins</code> before he actually throws their theories out on the basis of more compelling philosophical reasoning. As S.L. <code>Pandey</code> points out Śamkara has not dismissed the views of any vedāntin as nonsense and has tried his best to accommodate it in his own system. But this is not the spirit of the post-Śamkara commentators of the <code>Brahmasūtras²6</code>.

It appears that the controversies and conflicts within the aupanisadic system began with the advaitavada of Samkara. Firstly because the reconstructed philosophical systems like that of Bhartrprapanca do not show that they were interested in controversies within the vedanta school, just as the Brahmasūtrakāra who seems to accommodate within the Brahmasūtras the diverse views of the earlier vedāntins. Secondly, it was not possible, humanly speaking, for any of the post-Samkara vedantins to ignore Samkara and to propagate a new theory either without refuting and contraverting the advaita of Samkara or without accepting the advaita doctrines with certain modifications. The bhasyas of Bhāskara and Rāmānuja illustrate and substantiate both these points. For example, Bhaskara, whose aupādhika bhedābhedavāda seems to be an adaptation of the earlier bhedābhedavāda in the light of Śamkara, states²⁷ in the beginning of his bhasya on BS that his aim is to refute those who, while hiding the real sense of the sūtra, have only expressed their own opinion. Therefore he attacks the aviduāvāda of Samkara, even to the extent of accusing it of being Buddhism in disguise²⁸.

But in the case of the Saurabha of Nimbārka, as was pointed out earlier, it is completely free from all vedāntic controversies though conflicts with the non-vedāntic schools are not

lacking. Such a trait cannot be that of a post-Śamkara commentator. On the one hand Nimbārka does not criticise any of the doctrinal positions of Śamkara and there is nothing to show that he is aware of the Śamkarite theories like the pratibimbavāda, etc, and on the other hand Śamkara refutes views that are identical to the ones upheld by the Saurabhakāra. Unfortunately, however, neither Śamkara nor any of the later bhāṣyakāras who refute the opposing vedāntic schools mention the names of the opponents. In spite of this difficulty I intend to show in the following pages, through a critical study of the texts of Śamkara and of Nimbārka, that in many places the vedāntic pūrvapakṣin whose views Śamkara refutes in his Brahmasūtrabhāṣya is none other than Nimbārka.

(b) Criteria for the identification of the pūrvapaksin

In the absence of any definite historical evidence, what are the criteria that can be employed to ascertain the identity of a pūrvapaksin of a particular bhāsyakāra? Our work may be made less laborious if the bhāsyakāra clearly states the doctrinal tenets of the pūrvapaksin. In such cases we can at least be certain that a particular school of thought is rejected²⁹. But there are some instances where similar views are held by different schools within the vedanta system, such as the theory of the atomic nature of the soul, which is accepted by the bhedabheda school of Nimbarka and by the other Vaisnava vedānta Sects. In such instances we cannot be certain about the identity of the pūrvapaksin, whose view is refuted by Samkara. It may be more probable that Samkara is not merely refuting the opinion of one particular pūrvapaksin, but is rejecting similar views held by many previous thinkers. Therefore, in similar situation, it is difficult to identify each and every pūrvapaksinin a given bhāsya like that of Samkara.

As a first step we may eliminate all the philosophers and their views that are definitely posterior to the respective bhāṣyakāras. Thus Śaṁkara could not be attacking the views of Rāmānuja, although the former is attacking views that are similar to that of the latter. This shows that there had been views similar to those of Rāmānuja at the time of Śaṁkara. In that case we could also infer the possibility of

even Rāmānuja's acceptance of such views from earlier sources. What is to be noted here is that since Ramanuja is aware of the criticism and even the rejection of such views already by Samkara, he could bring in the necessary modifications and clarifications in his exposition of the same views refuted by Samkara. Commentators who came after Rāmānuja were aware of and made ample use of the defence that he makes for the Vaisnava doctrines against Samkara. A pre-Samkara bhāsya has, therefore, a two fold characteristic. First of all, a pre-Śamkara bhāsyakāra is unaware of the points that Samkara raises against his doctrines. Secondly, a pre-Samkara bhāsuakāra is also unaware of the typical Samkarite doctrines such as Brahma Vivartavāda, Avidyāvāda, Pratibimbavāda etc. against which he is unable to raise any objections, since he is anterior to Samkara, Among the extant vrttis on Brahmasūtras the Saurabha alone has this double characteristics.

A critical study of the vrtti of Nimbarka and the bhasya of Samkara also throws further light on the prior existence of the former, to the latter. Although Samkara does not quote verbatim from the Saurabha, he shows that he is quite familiar with the doctrinal tenets identical with those of the Saurabha. In this connection it is worth noting that a bhāsyakāra of Śamkara's calibre and ingenuity often tends to refine and systematize the views of the pūrvapaksin thereby making the pūrvapaksin's view clearer. In such cases even though we may not find in the Samkarabhasya verbatim quotations from the pūrvapaksin still his ideas are clearly presented by Samkara. Moreover our inference regarding the identity of the purvapaksin of Samkara becomes all the more conclusive when Samkara quotes the same scriptural texts as presented by the pūrvapaksin in support of the pūrvapaksa theory. It means that Samkara is aware that his pūrvapaksin relies upon these particular scriptural texts as the basis of his doctrine. These points are very evident in the treatment of the anutva of the soul by Nimbarka and Samkara in their respective commentaries on BS2.3.19 ff.

(c) The anutva of the jiva

According to Samkara the sūtras 19 to 28 state the doctrine of the pūrvapakṣin, namely, that the jīva is aṇu (atom)

and the sūtra 29 states the siddhānta view: the ātmavibhutvavāda (all pervasiveness of soul). Here Śaṁkara holds that the anutva (atomic nature) of the jīva is not the doctrine of the sūtrakāra but of the pūrvapakṣin. Therefore, whatever Śaṁkara states in sūtras 19 to 28 are the opinions of the pūrvapakṣin and not his own doctrine. Śaṁkara is merely quoting him in order to present the pūrvapakṣa in all fairness. Later under sūtra 29 Śaṁkara presents the siddhānta view according to him. A critical exaṃination of the respective commentaries of Nimbārka and Śaṁkara on these sūtras dealing with the anutva of the jīva may help us to determine whether Nimbārka is the pūrvapakṣin for Śaṁkara in this section.

Sūtra 2.3.19: utkrāntigatyāgatīnām

Under this sūtra Nimbārka accepts the jīva as aṇu because the scripture speaks of its departure, going and returning. He gives a scriptural text each for the departure (utkrānti — Bṛḥ 4.4.2), going (gati-Kauṣ 1.2) and returning (agati—Bṛḥ 4.4.6) of the individual soul. Of these Saṃkara accepts the last two texts to denote going and returning and adopts a more suitable scriptural passage (Kauṣ 3.3.) to denote departure.

Nimbārka

anena pradyotanena eşa ātmā niṣkrāmati, cakṣuṣo vā mūrḍhno vā anyebhyo vā śariradeśebhyaḥ (Brṭh 4.4.2)

Śamkara

sa yadā smāc charīrād utkrāmati, sahaivaikaiḥ sarvair utkrāmati (Kauṣ 3.3)

Thus by giving a better scriptural proof for the departure of the soul, Śamkara seems to strengthen the pūrvapakṣa. Yet he does not disregard the Brhadāranyaka (4.4.2) text quoted by Nimbārka, for he adds it in the subsequent sūtra (20). This shows that Śamkara is aware that his pūrvapakṣin considers Brh 4.4.2. as a support for the anutva of the jīva. It is the normal practice with Śamkara to give his opponent his due. This mentality of Śamkara enables him always to face his opponents bravely and even to accept their position in so far as it does not contradict his own doctrine.

Nimbarka, often incorporates the texts that are newly samkara. It seems to be his normal practice to and to adopt whatever Samkara has said over the exposition of Nimbārka in so far as there is no in the respective bhāṣyas of Samkara and It suffices here to note that Śrīnivāsa incorporates the suspension of Nimbārka. It suffices here to note that Śrīnivāsa incorporates the suspension of Nimbārka. It suffices here to note that Śrīnivāsa incorporates the suspension of Nimbārka.

Although Rāmānuja's interpretation of this sūtra is more or less identical with that of Nimbārka, he is very familiar with the doctrinal position of Śaṁkara. He states: vibhutve hy etā utkrānty ādayo nopapadyeran³⁰. The significance of such a statement is clear only from the fact that in sūtra 29 below, Śaṁkara asserts the all-pervasiveness of the soul as the siddhānta. The entire Saurabha, on the other hand, is unaware of this doctrine of Śaṁkara. Śrīnivāsa, like Rāmānuja, appears to be familiar with the Śaṁkarite doctrine of the all-pervasiveness of the soul from the fact that he attempts here to refute the two alternatives to the atomic size of the soul, namely the middle size and the all-pervading size³¹.

Sutra 20: svātmanā cottarayoh

Here there is a striking similarity between the *bhāṣya* of Śaṁkara and the *vrtti* of Nimbārka. The phrase *grāma svāmy anivrtti vat* appears to be originally of Nimbārka, because Nimbārka's presentation and expression are more archaic while those of Śaṁkara are more refined and expressive. Compare:—

Nimbārka

utkrāntiḥ kadācit sthirasyāpi grāmasvāmy anivrttivat syāt. Uttarasyoḥ svātmanaiva sambhavāj jīvo'ņuḥ

Śamkara

utkrāntiḥ kadacid acalato'pi grāmasvāmy anivṛttivad dehasvāmy anivṛttyākarmakṣayenā,' vakalpeta. Uttare tu gaty āgatinā' calataḥ sambhavateḥ It is significant to note that the *sūtra* itself does not demand the example of *grāmasvāmyanivrtti*. Śamkara brings here *Brh* 4.4.2 text which he did not quote in *sūtra* 19 above, to substantiate the passing out of the jīva from the body. He further quotes *Brh* 4.4.1 and *Brh* 4.3.11 to show that the soul goes and comes within the body. According to him these scriptural passages also prove the atomic size of the soul. Here is a unique example of fairness on Śamkara's part to refine and to illustrate the *pūrvapakṣa* doctrine even better than what the opponent himself could do.

From the respective commentaries of Nimbārka and Śamkara on this sūtra, it appears that it is Śamkara who expands Nimbārka. Rāmānuja on his part does not bring in the simile of grāmasvāmyanivrtti, but briskly explains in clear terms what Nimbārka and Śāmkara do with the simile as evident from the following text.

ca śabdo'vadhāraṇe yadyapi śarīraviyogarūpat - venotkrāntiḥ sthirasyātmanaḥ kathaṅcid upapadyate, gaty āgatī tu na kathaṅcid upapadyete atas te svātmanaiva sampādye³².....

Sutra 21 : nāṇuratacchruter iti cen netarādhikārāt

Under this sūtra Śaṁkara besides quoting the only Scriptural text found in the Saurabha (Bṛh 4.4.22), reinforces the doctrine of the pūrvapakṣa with further Scriptural supports (Bṛh 4.4.22, Tait 2.1.1). By doing so he explains the doctrine better than Nimbārka. The later commentators including Śrīnivāsa make use of these refinements brought in by Śaṁkara.

Sutra 22 : Svaśabdonmānābhyām ca

Under this sūtra Nimbārka proves the atomic nature of the individual soul on the basis of the mundaka 3.1.9. and Svet. 5.9 texts. But Śaṃkara gives a more refined explanation than Nimbārka with greater clarity and with a further scriptural support (viz., Śvet. 5.8). Śrīnivāsa follows the lead given by him. The rearrangement that Śaṃkara makes in the exposition of his pūrvapakṣin is even clearer in the next sūtra.

Nimbārka

dehaika deśastho'pi krtsnam deham candanabindur yathā'hlādayati tathā jīvo'piprakāśayati. Ataḥ krṭṣnaśarīre sukhādy anubhavo na virudhyate

Śamkara

yathā hi haricandana binduḥ śarīraika deśa sambadho'pi san sakaladeha svyāpinam āhlādaṁ karoti evam ātmāpi dehaika deśasthaḥ sakaladehavyāpinīm upalabdhim kariṣyati. tuak sambandhāc cāsya sakalaśarīragata vedanā na virudhyate. tvagāt manor hi sambandhaḥ kṛṭṣṇāyām tvaci vartatetvak ca kṛṭṣṇa śarīra vyāpinīti.

While Nimbārka speaks of the experience of pleasure, etc, which seems to be an off-hand expression, Śaṁkara limits himself here to mere tactual experience, which seems to be more proper and precise. He takes up other kinds of experiences in his explanations of the next sūtra³³ which mainly deals with the abode of the soul within the heart.

Sūtra 25

While Nimbārka reads the sūtra as guṇād vā'lokavat, various editions of the Śaṁkarabhāṣya present Śaṁkara as reading the sūtra as gunād vā lokavat³⁴. But Śaṁkara's explanation of the sūtra goes in the line of ālokavat rather than lokavat, for he brings up the example of the light and room, etc. which can be considered to go against the reading of the sūtra as lokavat³⁵. Anyway, the explanation of Śaṁkara shows that he is aware that the pūrvapakṣin reads the sūtra as ālokavat in terms of the simile of the light and the room. Here are the respective texts of Nimbārka and Śaṁkara.

Nimbarka

Dehe prakāśo jīvaguņād eva koṣṭe dīpālokādivat.

Samkara

...yathā loke maṇipradīpaprabhṛtinām apavarakaikadeśavartinām api prabhā'pavarakavyāpini sati kṛṭsne pavarake kāryam karoti tadvat.

Sūtra 26

Nimbārka reads the sūtra as vyatireko gandhavat tathā hi darśayati, while Śaṁkara and Bhāskara break the sūtra into two sūtras³⁶ and change the phrase tathā hi into tathā ca. Although Rāmānuja does not break the sūtra into two distinct parts, he comes to that when he reads the sūtra as vyatireko gandhavat tathā ca darśayati.

Nimbārka quotes kauṣitaki 4.20 "sa eṣa praviṣṭa ālomabhya ānakhebhyaḥ" which has nothing to do with gandha. By breaking the sūtra into two and placing the Kauṣitakitext in its proper place at the second sūtra, Śamkara has magnificently expressed the view of his pūrvapakṣin. Although the Kauṣitaki text is not a strong support for the pūrvapakṣa, and is incompetent to show how the attribute of knowledge can extend beyond itself, Śamkara, due to his universal outlook and fair play, accepts the text as claimed by the pūrvapakṣin.

Rāmānuja does not quote the Kauṣitaki text, which shows that the tradition he presents, namely, the school of Bodhāyana, did not regard this text as supporting the siddhānta of the Bodhāyana school. It also may perhaps point out that the pūrvapakṣa whom Śamkara is attacking here is not the Bodhāyana tradition, but another tradition that considers the Kauṣitaki 4.20 as supporting the anutva of the soul. As we have seen, Nimbārka belongs to such a tradition, which relies also upon the Kauṣitaki 4.20 in support of the anutva of the jīva.

Sūtra 27 : pṛthag upadeśāt

This sūtra deals with the difference between the individual self and its intelligence. Nimbārka expresses, this relation in terms of dharmadharmibhāva. Śaṁkara, besides quoting prajñayā śarīram samāruhya (Kauṣ 3.6) as done by Nimbārka, also quotes tadeṣām prāṇānām vijñānena vijñānamādāya (Bṛḥ 2.1.17). He explains the relation of the jīva and vijñāna in terms of Kartṛkaraṇabhāva.

Nimbārka (Saurabha 2.3.27)

jīvataj jñānayor jñānatvāviśeṣo'pi Śamkara (2.3.28)

Prajňayā sarīram samāruhya (Kaus 3.6) iti cātmaprajňayoḥ dharmadharmibhāvo yukta eva kutaḥ? prajñayā śarīram āruhya (Kauṣ 3.6) ityādi prṭhagupadeśāt kartrkaraṇabhāvena pr.thag upadeśāc caitanyaguṇenaivāsya śarīravyāpitā' vagamyate. tadeṣām prāṇānām vijñānena vijñānam ādaya (Br.h 2.1.17) iti ca kartuḥ śarīrāt pr.thagvijñānasy opadeśa etam evābhiprāyam upodvalayati tasmād aṇurātm eti

It is significant that, inspite of explaining the relation of jiva and its vijñānain terms of kartrkaraṇabhāva, Śaṁkara speaks of vijñāna as a guṇa and not as a karana when he states, "prthag upadeśāc caitanye guṇenaivāsya śarīravyāpitā'vagamyate. Here, again Śaṁkara unwittingly admits that the original pūrvapakṣin considers the relation of the jīva and its intelligence in terms of dharma-dharmibhāva. Therefore the kartrkaraṇabhāva that Śaṁkara brings in appears to be an attempt at refinement.

A comparative study of the commentaries of Nimbārka, Śamkara, Bhāskara, Rāmānuja, Vallabha and Madhva on the above eight sūtras (nine according to Śamkara and Bhāskara) gives the impression that except Nimbārka, all the other commentators, who also accept the anutva of the jīva as the siddhānta along with Nimbārka, are aware of the Śāmkarite doctrine of the vibhutva of soul as well as the refinements and clarity that Śamkara has given to the pūrvapakṣin's doctrine of anutva of the jīva. Nimbārka alone appears to be completely unaware of the refinements brought in by Śamkara. It is Śamkara who appears to make corrections to what Nimbārka has stated rather than Nimbārka attempting to summarise Śamkara.

Another point to be noted is the fact that Śaṁkara considers these sūtras as presenting the pūrvapaķsa. It means that someone before Śaṁkara had considered these sūtras as stating the siddhānta. Therefore Śaṁkara is trying to present the doctrine of a real pūrvapakṣin in the language and the style of the pūrvapakṣin himself. Here he is not expressing his own view, but that of an earlier commentator who accepted the aṇutva of the jīva. Besides, from Śaṁkara's

own bhāṣyait is clear that the pūrvapakṣin is an aupaniṣadin (i.e. vedāntin) who relies on the upaniṣadic texts to prove the doctrine of the anutva of the soul. Śamkara, true to his greatness, attempts to present the pūrvapakṣa in all fairness, incorporating all the Scriptural texts on which the pūrvapakṣin relies. Significantly all this is done by Śamkara, who does not himself subscribe to the doctrine of anutva of the soul.

What catches our attention first of all, when we compare the bhāsya of Nimbārka and Śamkara in this section, is the striking similarity in their language, examples and scriptural texts. These striking similarities in this section of their commentaries would show that there was a deep influence of one upon the other. It is quite legitimate to doubt whether Nimbarka is summarizing Samkara rather than the latter elaborating the former. The first alternative cannot be accepted because when one summarizes a more refined and scholarly work like that of Samkara's bhasua on the Brahmasūtras, he can ill afford to miss the more refined vocabulary, the logical clarity, the academic excellence and the scholarly perspective of the original work. He can never leave aside the more convincing and powerful illustrations as well as the apt scriptural texts of the one he is summarizing. On the contrary, the one who expands a short work tends to correct the archaic terms and to use more refined vocabulary. He can replace the misplaced texts, besides bringing more scriptural proofs. From these considerations it appears that Samkara had the text of Nimbārka, so to say on his desk, while commenting on the aforesaid sūtras. A critical study of these sūtras gives us the impression that Śamkara has read Nimbārka very critically and therefore makes the necessary corrections even in stating the doctrine of the anutva of the soul, by changing a word here and there or by breaking the sūtra into two. Samkara takes note of all the Scriptural texts that Nimbarka has put forward in his defence although some of them are not strong enough and could be neglected. Therefore he even goes to the extent of supplying his pūrvapaksin with more proper and accurate śrūti texts. The archaic expressions and the rough corners of the language and the literary style of Nimbarka are refined by Samkara, not only in this section but elsewhere also. A post-Samkara Nimbārka cannot leave aside these refinements and clarities that Samkara has offered.

Our conclusion is further supported by another important fact that there is absolutely no trace of any criticism of any of the Śarnkarite theories in the Saurabha. Since Śarnkara has rejected the anutva of jiva, it is not probable that a post-Samkara jivānutvavādin could defend his doctrine by making a short, if not clumsy, summary of what Samkara has said about it in his bhāsya, without a word of criticism of Samkara's own position of atmavibhutvavada. Therefore it cannot be said that Nimbarka is here summarizing Sarnkara, especially because the jivanutvavada is the purvapaksa for Śamkara and he rejects it in his bhāsya on the subsequent sūtras. Any post-Śamkara commentator, who wants to defend the jivanutvavāda has to rise up against the ātmavibhuvāda of Śariıkara. The entire Saurabha of Nimbārka is unaware of any Samkarite doctrine of atmavibhuvada. Significantly the Saurabhakāra criticizes only the ātmavibhuvāda of Kapila in the Saurabha 2.3.49 and there is not a word against Samkara under BS 2.3.28-31 where Śamkara develops his siddhānta of ātmavibhutva.

Nor can it be said that what Samkara says on the jivanutvavāda of the pūrvapaksin is an original statement of Śamkara and that Nimbārka is summarizing him. Śamkara himself accepts that he is expressing the view of an aupanisadic pūrvapaksin under sūtras 19-28 (according to his reading). Samkara also takes care to present the doctrine of the pūrvapaksin as faithfully and clearly as possible. When he quotes a pūrvapaksin he normally retains the style and vocabulary of the pūrvapaksin as far as possible. Therefore the similarity found in this section of the commentaries of Nimbārka and Śamkara points out that Śamkara is trying to present the doctrine of his pūrvapaksin faithfully with necessary clarifications and that this pūrvapaksinis the Saurabhakāra. This contention of ours is supported by the fact that the Saurabhakāra is completely unaware of Śamkara throughout the Saurabha. Therefore Nimbarka could not possibly have lived after Samkara.

These findings are further strenghened by the respective commentaries of Śamkara and Nimbārka on the remaining sūtras of the section.

Sutra 28: tadguņasāratvāt tu tad vyapadeśaḥ prājňavat.

V.S. **Ghate**³⁷ translates the *sūtra* "but, on account of that quality (or those qualities or the qualities of that) being the essence, there is that designation (or the designation of that) just as in the case, for example with *prājňa* (intelligent one)".

Nimbārka takes this $s\bar{u}tra$ to explain how the soul, though really atomic by nature, has all-pervasiveness as a quality. Just as the intelligent one is Brahman (possessed of great attributes) on the ground of etymology (Brh + man), so also the individual soul is, designated at times in the scriptures, as "eternal, all-pervading" (Mund 1.1.6) because of its possessing great attributes. Brahman is great by its very nature as well as due to its attributes whereas the soul is atomic by nature, but has all-pervasiveness as an attribute. Thus the individual soul, though atomic in size, is all-pervading by reason of its attribute $prajn\bar{a}^{38}$.

Śamkara, on the contrary, begins the *siddhānta* with this *sūtra*. He is very much preoccupied with the defence of his position. He takes great pains to refute the doctrine of the atomic nature of the jīva, and to establish the *vibhutva* of the jīva³⁹. He rejects the position of Nimbārka that the atomic soul has all-pervasiveness as a quality. His argument is that if the intelligence of the soul pervades the whole body, the soul cannot be atomic, for intelligence constitutes the soul's proper nature, just as heat and light constitute that of fire. A separation of the two as quality and that which is qualified does not exist⁴⁰.

According to Śamkara the jīva, though identified with Brahman and therefore all-pervading, is called anu because the qualities of buddhi, the limiting adjunct, form its essence, in so far as the jīva is under the influence of Samsāra. It means that the samsāritva of the jīva consists essentially in its being limited by and possessing the qualities of the buddhi. The soul is said to be atomic because the atomic size of the buddhi is metaphorically attributed to the jīva.

An important question remains to be answered. And that

is "Is Samkara justified in taking this sūtra (2. 3.28) introducing the siddhanta position as opposed to the doctrine presented so far in the previous sūtras? The word tu in the sūtra at first sight gives the impression that Śamkara is correct in considering the preceding sūtras as the pūrvapaksa and this sūtra as stating the siddhanta. First of all, it must be noted that tu does not always denote the beginning of the siddhanta doctrine, even according to Samkara⁴¹. Besides as Ghate points out⁴², an impartial evaluation of the preceding as well as the succeeding sūtras show that the word tu here need not be in support of Samkara. Above all. Samkara's interpretation looks very far-fetched, because, as Thibaut⁴³ and later Ghate⁴⁴ point out, the meaning that Samkara gives to the pronoun tat in the sutra as buddhi is unwarranted and awkward, since there is no reference whatsoever to buddhi in the preceding sūtras. Therefore such an interpretation, according to them, appears to be "foreign" to the general trend of the adhikarana. Ghate also finds fault with the explanation that Samkara gives to the word prājnavat because Samkara fails to make any real difference whatsoever between the drstanta (illustration) and the darstantika (the illustrated)⁴⁵. The jiva is called atomic, etc. owing to the atomic size of the limiting adjunct called buddhi, just as, for instance, the praina or paramatman is designated as being atomic, etc owing to the qualities of its upadhis. But it must be remembered that in the beginning of his commentary on this sūtra. Śamkara identifies Brahman and the jīva⁴⁶. Therefore, one naturally fails to understand how the one illustrates the other.

Although the literal interpretation of the sūtra by Rāmānuja is similar to that of Nimbārka, the implications are quite different. According to him the individual soul, though a knower, is at times predicated as knowledge, because it possesses knowledge as its essential attribute, just as the Lord, though a knower, is at times designated as knowledge. Rāmānuja here seems to emphasize that knowledge is only an essential attribute of the jīva, and not its essential nature⁴⁷.

These distinctions are necessary for a post-Śamkara Vedāntin, because under BS 3.2.18 Śamkara holds that knowledge is the essential nature of the jīva. Nimbārka, as

we have seen above, is unaware of any such distinctions and holds that though the soul is atomic by its nature, it is possessed of all-pervasiveness as an attribute by reason of its attribute of knowledge. Thus by the time of Rāmānuja the emphasis has slowly shifted from the attempt to explain how the atomic soul could be all-pervasive to that of explaining how the soul could be called knowledge even though it has knowledge only as an attribute. This is all the more clear from the fact that Bhāskara, as a bhedābhedavādin, on the one hand, is preoccupied with the task of reconciling the texts, dealing with atomicity and the all-pervasiveness of the soul; and on the other hand, labouring under the new situation caused by the doctrinal position of Śainkara, accepts that the atomicity of the soul is only a transmigratory phenomenon.

Thus among all the extant commentaries only the Saurabha remains totally untouched by the doctrines of Śamkara.

Sūtra 2.3.29 : yāvad ātmabhāvitvāc ca na doṣas tad darśanāt.

Under this $s\bar{u}tra$ Nimbārka shows that there is no contradiction in the occasional scriptural designation of the soul as all-pervasive because the all-pervading attribute of knowledge is always with the soul. In his own words:

jīvasya guņa nibandhano vibhutva vyapadeśo na viruddhaḥ. guṇasya yāvad ātmabhāvitvāt. 'na hi vijñātur viparilopo vidyate' vināsītvāt (Bṛh 4.3.30) āvinaśī vā are ayam ātmā (Bṛh 4.5.14) iti tad darśanāt.

Being an *aupaniṣadin*, Nimbārka is aware that there are some references in the upaniṣads to the all-pervasiveness of souls. — The explanation of the *sūtra* here by Nimbārka does not warrant any knowledge of the Śaṁkarite doctrine of ātmavibhwāda.

This is sūtra 30 according to Śamkara. Here he answers the objection raised by the pūrvapakṣin, perhaps of his own making, in order to explain his doctrine better. The objection is that the transmigrating condition of the soul will come to an end at the disjunction of buddhi from the soul, resulting in such a situation, in which the soul will be altogether undefinable and hence non-existing or rather non-existing

in the samsāra state. According to Śamkara there is no such difficulty because this connection of the jīva with buddhi lasts as long as the jīva continues to be in samsāra i.e. continues to be jīva.

Rāmānuja, on the contrary, continues with his discussion of knowledge as an attribute of jīva. According to him there is nothing wrong in the designation of the jīva by the attribute of knowledge, because this attribute is present wherever the ātman exists ...vijnānasya yāvad ʾātmabhāvirdharmatvāt tena tad vyapadeśo na doṣaḥ....

Rāmānuja substantiates his interpretation by bringing the example of cows. He points out that the cows are called cows because of their possessing the generic character of the cows, irrespective of their horns or mutilated horns:— tadā cakhaṇḍādayoyāvatsvarūpabhāvigotvādidharmaśabdena gaur iti vyapadiśyamānā dṛṣyante, svarūpanirūpaṇa dharmatvād ity arthaḥ. He finds a further support in the word ca in the sūtra and points out that application of the term knowledge to the ātman is suitable. On this account, just like knowledge, the ātman is also self-illuminated. "cakārājjñānavad ātmano'pi svaprakāśatvena jñānam iti vyapadeśe na doṣa iti samuccinoti.

It is quite clear that Rāmānuja here wants to encounter and refute the Śaṁkarite doctrine of knowledge as the essential nature of the soul.

Sutra 2.3.30 : pumstvādivat tv asya sato'bhivyaktiyogāt

The *bhāṣyakāras* make use of this *sūtra* to substantiate their respective doctrines. The general import of the explanation is the same although the purpose which they serve are different.

Nimbārka brings certain clarifications to his doctrine by stating that knowledge, as an attribute of the soul, is always existent along with the soul, although it may not be manifested always. The non-manifestation of knowledge in deep sleep, etc. does not mean that the attribute of knowledge ceases to be with the soul. In fact, it lasts as long as the soul lasts. It is like the case of virility, etc. which becomes manifest in youth, although they are very much existent in an unmanifest manner in childhood⁴⁸.

Śaṁkara makes use of the $s\bar{u}tra$ to explain that the non-manifestation of the connection of buddhi with the soul in deep sleep does not mean its absence in such a state. Otherwise he gives the same interpretation as Nimbārka with greater clarity and refinement⁴⁹. He points out that nothing can be assumed to spring up except from something existent, otherwise we have to accept that effects spring up without any cause. In the same way virility etc. do not originate from previous non-existence, otherwise they might originate also in eunuchs.

In his explanation Bhāskara follows Śaṁkara.

Rāmānuja explains further the example of virility, etc. and stresses the fact that these are essentially the attributes of the male being. On similar lines he concludes that to be a knowing subject is the essential character of the jīva, which is of atomic size. His opponent, basing himself on *Bṛh* 2.4.12⁵⁰ objects stating if that is so the departed soul may not have consciousness. Rāmānuja attempts to clarify his position by explaining that after death there is only the absence of such knowledge connected with the experience of birth, death, etc. which are caused by the connection of the jīva with the elements in the state of *Saṃsāra*.

Here again a comparative study of the various commentaries reveals that among all the commentators the language and style of Nimbārka are more archaic and free from all controversies.

Sutra 2.3.31: nityopalabdhy anupalabdhi prasango'nyatara niyomo vā'nyathā.

This is the last sūtra of the present adhikaraņa.

Nimbārka takes the *sūtra* as rejecting the doctrine of an all-pervasive soul. We have no reason to assume that he has here Śaṁkara in mind because in BS 2.3.49 as we have noted above, Nimbārka identifies the upholders of the ātmavibhuvāda as the followers of Kapila. Besides here he is completely unaware of the pratibimbavāda, that is developed under this sūtra by Śaṁkara. The argument he brings against the sarvagatātmavāda is, that if the soul is all-pervasive by nature, it would mean that both perception and

non-perception as well as bondage and release are eternal⁵¹. This criticism of the all-pervasiveness of the soul by Nimbārka does not warrant any knowledge of Śaṁkara at all⁵², because the precise doctrinal position of Śaṁkara is that the ātman is not only all-pervasive but has knowledge as its essential nature.

Śamkara makes use of the *sūtra* to prove the existence of an internal organ, which on the basis of the differences in the modifications, is called by various names such as *manas*, *buddhi*, *vijñāna* or *citta*. According to him, if there were no such internal organ the result would be that the jīva would always be perceiving or would never perceive⁵³.

Śrīnivāsa makes use of this $s\bar{u}tra$ to refute the advaita theory of the all-pervasive soul whose essential nature is $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na^{54}$. Rāmānuja too attacks Śamkara's theory of Sarvagatva and $j\bar{n}\bar{a}nam\bar{a}tratva$ of ātman, and upholds that the jīva can be only anu, otherwise there will result perforce the perception and non-perception always together or as a rule there would be either perception alone always or non-perception alone⁵⁵.

We may draw a few conclusions from our above study. Firstly, there is almost complete verbal similarity between Nimbarka and Samkara in their respective explanations of sūtras 19-27 above, where Samkara considers the anutva of the soul as a pūrvapaksa doctrine, while Nimbārka considers such a doctrine as the siddhantaview. Secondly, Samkara develops, against the anutva theory of the pūrvapaksin, the vibhutva of the ātman in sūtra 28 onwards. Thirdly, of all the extant commentaries only the Saurabha of Nimbarka shows complete ignorance of such a theory by any vedantin before him. Fourthly, were Nimbarka aware of the atmavibhutva theory of any fellow vedantin, he ought to have refuted it in order to uphold the anutva of the atman as done by other post-Samkara commentators, who accepted atmanutvavada. Now the complete absence of any awareness of the theories counter to anutva of ātman puts Nimbārka in a unique place among all the commentators advocating anutva of jiva.

(d) The goal of the jiva

To substantiate our contention that Nimbārka is a pre-

Śamkara vedāntin we shall examine a few more instances. among the many⁵⁶, where Samkara seems to consider the opinion of Nimbārka as that of a pūrvapaksin. One of such instances is their discussion on the journey of the soul to the ultimate goal. The third padaof the fourth adhuaua deals with the fate of the soul. Sūtras 1-5 describe the path and the stations on the way to the ultimate goal. Nimbarka takes sūtras 6-15⁵⁷ as forming an adhikarana, of which the first five state the view of the first purvapaksin (Badari) and the next three state that of the second pūrvapaksin (Jaimini), while finally the last two sūtras state the siddhānta doctrine (Bādarāyana). Śanikara, on the contrary, makes two adhikaranas of them. The opinion of Bādari, contained in the first five sūtras of the adhikarana is the siddhānta⁵⁸ according to Samkara while the opinion of Jaimini, contained in the next three sūtras is the pūrvapaksa⁵⁹. Finally Śamkara makes a separate adhikarana constituting the next two sūtras, which gives the doctrinal position of Bādarāvana.

According to the doctrine of Bādari as propounded by Nimbārka, those who worship the Kāryabrahman (the effected Brahman) are led to the Kāryabrahman⁶⁰. Jaimini, the other pūrvapakṣin, holds, according to Nimbārka, the view that the troupe of light and the rest are leading the soul to the Parabrahman (the highest Brahman)⁶¹. The siddhānta view, according to Nimbārka is the position of Bādarāyana, who holds that the light and the rest lead to the Parabrahman those who do not depend on symbols, but meditate on the Parabrahman as well as on their own imperishable nature as having Brahman for their essence. Nimbārka as a true bhedābhedavādin is trying to reconcile whatever is redeemable in his opponents (Bādari and Jaimini) by accepting whatever has the scriptural sanction.

Saurabha 4.3.14 The troupe of light and the rest "leads those who do not depend on symbols" i.e. those who meditate on the highest Brahman, as well as those who meditate on their own imperishable nature as having Brahman for its essence — to the highest Brahman. Why? "on account of fault in both ways". That is, on the view that it leads to Parabrahman only those who meditate on the effected Brahman, the following scriptural text will come to be contradicted,

viz. "Having risen from the body having attained the form of highest light" (*Chānd* 8.12.3). On the fixed rule, on the other hand, that it leads (to the Parabrahman) those only who meditate on the highest Brahman, the following Scriptural text will come to be contradicted viz. "Those who know thus and those who meditate on faith and penance in the forest—reach light" (*Chānd* 5.10.1). Hence in accordance with the scriptural text: Just as the intention a man has in this world, so alone does he become after departing (*Chānd* 3.14.1). "He whose intention is that attains that alone—this is the correct conclusion, the reverend Bādarāyaṇa thinks".

Here Nimbārka seems to say that the fault with his opponents (Bādari and Jaimini) is that their respective doctrinal positions go against Scripture. For, Scripture declares that each one attains, what he has been striving for, when it states, "just as the intention a man has in this world, so alone does he become after departing hence." (Chānd 3.14.1).

Significantly Nimbārka and Śamkara are in complete agreement in holding that the first eight sūtras (i.e. the opinion of Bādari and Jaimini) deal with Brahman, the goal to be reached, although there is a difference in their respective understanding of Brahman. Rāmānuja, on the contrary, considers these sūtras as dealing primarily with the type of worshippers, who are led to Brahman by the path described in earlier sūtras. Nimbārka and Śamkara consider Bādari as holding the ultimate goal to be the Kāryabrahman and Jaimini as holding it to be the Parabrahman. Rāmānuja, on the other hand, gives importance to the worshippers of the Kāryabrahman and of the Parabrahman respectively. This shift of emphasis from Brahman to the worshipper of Brahman by Rāmānuja prompted Ghate to point out that Rāmānuja is "out of track" here⁶². But Rāmānuja appears to me, to re-read the sūtras under the light of his own commentary on sūtra 14 "apratīkālambanān nayatīti bādarāyana ubhayathā ca dosāttat kratuśca" (Rāmānuja's version), which is also the siddhanta doctrine according to Ramanuja. This sūtra speaks of those worshippers who do not depend on symbols. Perhaps he realized that if he considered these ten sūtras as forming one adhikarana as Nimbarka had done, and accepted the position of Bādarāyaṇa as the *siddhānta* doctrine, he had to re-interpret the eight preceding *sūtras* in the light of the *siddhānta*. Therefore he cannot be considered to be "out of track" when he interprets the *sūtras* as dealing with the type of worshippers. One of the other alternatives would have been to follow the method of Śaṁkara and to make two *adhikaraṇas* out of the ten *sūtras*. In that case, in order to be more faithful to the method of interpreting the *Brahmasūtras*, he had to accept the position of Bādari as the *Pūrvapakṣa* and the position of Jaimini as the *siddhānta* doctrine. It would be ridiculous for a *Brahmasūtra bhāṣyakāra* to do so.

At any rate, accepting the view of Bādari stated in the earlier sūtras of the adhikaraṇa to be the siddhānta doctrine, as done by Śamkara, is really "out of track". Śamkara is fully aware that he is going against the general principle of interpretation within the vedānta school. For, he acknowledges that others, in accordance with the general principle that the earlier sūtras set forth the pūrvapakṣa view, while the later ones contain the siddhānta view, maintain that the passages about the journey of the soul fall within the sphere of higher knowledge⁶³. Being aware that he is going away from the general principle of interpretation, Śamkara takes great pains to defend his way of interpreting the sūtras.

What had prompted Samkara to give up such a fundamental principle? He could have changed the order of the sutras as Rāmānuja does in a few instances elsewhere⁶⁴. Samkara seems to have understood that these sūtras contain very fundamental doctrinal implications and that no "short hand" methods would help him here. For, the view of Bādarāyaṇa contained in BS 4.3.14⁶⁵ seems to imply the bhedābheda doctrine. Incidentally it may be mentioned that there is a minor difference between the readings of this sūtra by Nimbārka, Śamkara and Rāmānuja. Nimbārka reads the sūtra...ubhayathā doṣāt, while Śamkara reads that portion as ...ubhayathā'doṣāt. Rāmānuja adds a ca after ubhayathā in order to remove the possibility of ambiguity in the text. Therefore according to him the sūtra must read "...ubhayathā ca dosāt." It goes without saying that the reading of the sūtra

by Nimbarka appears to be unaffected, and, besides, his interpretation of it is free from all polemics and prejudices.

In his adhikarana, as also elsewhere in his commentary, Samkara is at pains to defend a two fold distinction of Brahman into a higher and a lower level, as well as a corresponding distinction of higher and a lower knower. The opinion of scholars like Ghate that such a distinction is farfetched, if not unfounded66, seems to be correct especially from the fact that the last sūtra of the Brahmasūtras 4.4.22 "anavrttih sabdad anavrttih sabdat" refers to "the inferior knowers" only who are proclaimed to return no more. But, Samkara as an advaitin upholding the identity between jiva and Brahman, has to show that the difference between them is due to some sort of avidua. In that case there is no possibility of the soul's going to the ultimate highest Brahman. who is present everywhere, is within everything and is the self of everything. For, Samkara says we do not go to what is already reached; ordinary experience rather tells us that a person goes to something different from him⁶⁷. Therefore an advaitin has to explain away all the scriptural texts, speaking of the soul's going to Brahman as referring to the lower Brahman, distinguished by avidyā⁶⁸. On the contrary, the bhedabhedavadin who accepts both identity and difference between Brahman and the jiva can uphold the going of the soul to the ultimate Brahman. For him, the doctrinal position of Bādarāvana at its face value is the siddhānta as is defended by Nimbarka.

In his shrewd polemics on the sūtra 14, Śaṁkara gives ample evidence that here he considers his opponent as a bhedābhedavādin, who, accepts Brahman as the final destination of the soul in so far as "it is possessed of all kinds of powers. This may be compared to a child's obtaining the adult state, which in reality belongs to the child's identical self, but is qualified by a difference of time." Besides, this pūrvapakṣin also holds that "the works of permanent obligation and works to be performed on special occasions are undertaken to the end that harm may not spring up, such works as are due to special desires and such as are forbidden, and eschewed, in order that neither the heavenly world nor hell may be obtained, and those works whose fruits are

to be enjoyed in the current bodily existence are exhausted by just that fruition. Hence, as after the death of the present body, there is no cause for the origination of a new body, that blessed isolation which consists in the soul's abiding within its own nature will accomplish itself for a man acting in the way described above, even without the cognition of his self being identical with Brahman's self-all this is inadmissible 69.. A critical study of the Saurabha substantiates the fact that almost all these points of the criticism by Śamkara of some earlier vedāntins are contained in the siddhānta of the Saurabha.

(e) The role of karmas for liberation

The attack of Śamkara on the early Vedāntin, who gives importance to karma appears to be against the Saurabhakāra, who teaches that the enquiry into Brahman is to be undertaken by the one who has studied the vedas with its six ancillary parts.

He says:-

athādhīta ṣaḍaṅgavedena karmaphalakṣayākṣayatva viṣayaka viveka prakāraka vākyārthajanyasaṁśayāviṣṭena tata eva jijñāsita dharmamīmāṁsāśāstreṇa tan ni ścita karma tatprakāra tat phala viṣayaka jñānavatā⁷⁰......

The Saurabhakara gives due weight to the study of the pūrvamīmāmsā with its ceremonial observation on various occasions for special results. The controversy concerning the relative importance of karma and jñāna has come to the fore with Śamkara and it remains a major point of discussion and dispute among the later bhāṣyakāras. Śamkara seems to be the first to hold that there is no need for a prior dharmajijñāsā to qualify a person for brahmajijñāsā. According to him the only pre-requirement for any meaningful brahmajijñāsā is the famous sādhanacatuṣṭayam, namely the discrimination of what is eternal and what is non-eternal, the renunciation of all desires to enjoy the fruit (of one's action) both here and hereafter, the acquirement of tranquillity and self restraint, and lastly, the intense desire for final release⁷¹.

In Saurabha 4.1.16 Nimbārka asserts that works of permanent obligations and duties of special occasions are to

be undertaken even after the attainment of knowledge. Says

vidyayā'gnihotradānatapa ādīnām svāśramakarmaṇām murtti śaṅkā nāsti, vidyāpoṣakatvād anuṣṭḥeyāny eva. majnādi śrutau teṣām vidyotpādakatvam darśanāt.

In his commentary on BS 3.4.32-35 Nimbārka considers that such duties are to be performed by every one, even by the vidvān because such righteous deeds are helpful in overcoming sins.

Śrinivāsa, Nimbārka's commentator, clarifies the doctrinal position of Nimbarka, by raising a doubt whether the daily and occasional duties like the Agnihotra, etc. are to be performed by a knower or not. He comes to the conclusion that these daily and occasional duties incumbent on one's own stage of life are to be performed by a knower as long as life lasts⁷². In Saurabha 4.1.15 Nimbārka established on the basis of Chand 6.14.2 that on the attainment of vidya, only the previous apravrttaphala pāpapunya perish, and that the salvation arises only after the fall of the body. Clarifying this point further. Śrinivāsa, the commentator on the Saurabha says, "the former good and bad deeds, the effects of which have not begun yet, alone perish through knowledge, but not those the effects of which have already begun⁷³. According to Nimbarka the knower destroys the good and evil deeds, the effect of which have already begun by "fruition" (bhoga), and attains Brahman⁷⁴. In Saurabha 3.3.27 Nimbarka upholds that at the time of the departure from the body, the soul completely abandons its merits and demerits. The reason why he forwards such a doctrinal view is that after the separation from the body there is no more any bhoga (experience) because this soul has completely abandoned its merits and demerits at death. Therefore there is no more any experience to be undergone. The decay of works actually take place at the time of the soul's departure from the body although it is recorded to take place after the soul crosses the river Virajā in Kaus 1.3.4 75.

Here Nimbārka seems to say that aśarīratva (absence of the body) implies karmābhāva, (absence of karma) because it, in turn, implies bhogābhāva (absence of experence). In this context it must be pointed out that according to Śaṁkara

karma can be destroyed by $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ only. Therefore according to him the only criterion for $karm\bar{a}bh\bar{a}va$ is that there is $j\bar{n}\bar{a}nabh\bar{a}va$. Thus in 4.3.14 of his $bh\bar{a}sya$ he rejects the position of Nimbārka in order to uphold his own theory of $J\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ as the only means of liberation⁷⁶.

(f) Śamkara refutes bhedābhedavāda

1. The last portion of the criticism of Samkara in BS 4.3.14 referred to above, about the nature of the final salvation, again, appears to be against the doctrine of the Saurabhakāra. According to the Saurabhakāra there is a natural difference and non-difference (svābhāvika bhedābheda) between jīva and Brahman, both during the earthly existence and in the state of liberation 77. The jiva, which is by nature atomic in size, is in liberation similar to Brahman⁷⁸, although unlike Brahman, who is all-pervasive, it cannot ever be the lord of all, the sentient and the non-sentient, nor be their creator, supporter and destroyer⁷⁹. In liberation according to Nimbarka, the soul does not lose its identity. In fact, having attained the highest, it becomes manifest in its own natural form80 in accordance with Chandogya 8.12.3 "param jyotir upasampadya svena rupenābhinispadyate". Samkara is aware that elsewhere also this Chandoqua text is used by the bhedābhedavādin in his support81. This text supports the view that in moksa the jiva retains its own real nature, thereby also retaining its individuality. According to the Saurabhakāra mokṣa means a full development of one's own individuality⁸². It is an experience in which the jiva realizes that it is both one with, and at the same time, different from Brahman. Says Nimbārka: muktah parasmād ātmānam bhāgāvirodhinā'vibhāgenānubhavati, tattvasya tadānīm aparoksato drstatvāt śāstrasyāpy evam drstatvāt⁸³.

2. In fact the real attack on the *bhedābheda* philosophy of Nimbārka by Śaṁkara is on what the former establishes under BS 3.2.27⁸⁴ and BS 3.2.28⁸⁵. The exposition of these sūtras by Nimbārka are unique among the *bhedābhedavādins*⁸⁶. He considers these sūtras as establishing the *siddhānta* doctrine. In the *bhāṣya* on BS 3.2.27 Nimbārka comments. "The view that the mūrta (corporeal) or the *amūrta* (incorporeal) are never negated by Scripture is

being comfirmed here. The universe (viśwam), consisting of the mūrta and the amūrta abides in its own cause viz. Brahman, in a relation of bhinābhina (difference-non-difference), on account of the designation of both bheda (difference) and abheda (non-difference), like the case of the serpent (ahi) and the coil (kuṇḍala).

Nimbarka being a satkāryavādin takes the example of ahikundala as an expression of satkāryavāda (doctrine of the pre-existence of the effect in the cause). The serpent (ahi) is the material cause of the coil (kundala), while the coil itself is an effect. The example of ahikundala also substantiates the doctrinal position of Nimbarka that there is a relation of "part and whole" between the soul and Brahman. In fact there is a bhedabheda relation between the cause i.e. the whole (here the serpent) and the effect, i.e. the part (here the coil). Thus the drstanta of ahikundalavat substantiates the bhedabheda relation between Brahman (the cause) and the universe (the effect). Just as the serpent is independent while the coil is dependent on the serpent, so also this corporeal and incorporeal universe is dependent on Brahman, the cause, in a relation of difference and non-difference between them.

Nimbārka makes use of the next sūtra (2.3.28) "prakāśāśrayavad vā tejastvāt" to explain the bhedābheda relation of Brahman and the soul in terms of substratum and its attributes. He explains: "There is such a relation of (bhedābheda) between the jīva and the Puruṣottama as well, on account of the designation of both — as between light and its substratum (prabhā tadvatoriva). Hence it is not to be supposed that there is an absolute difference (kevala bheda) between the two on the ground of the aphorism" Ato'nantena (hence with infinite) (BS 3.2.26). This is the sense⁸⁷.

While in Saurabha 3.2.27 Nimbārka denied absolute identity between the cause (Brahman) and the effect here in 3.2.28 he denies absolute difference between them. In his brief explanation here he points out that just as there is a difference between the snake and its coil or the sun and its rays on the one hand, there is also an equal non-difference between them on the other hand. Nimbārka establishes his doctrine of bhedābheda on solid scriptural foundation⁸⁸.

This doctrinal position of Nimbārka is considered to be that of a pūrvapakṣin by Śaṁkara, Bhāskara, Vācaspati Miśra and Rāmānuja, in their respective bhāṣyas on sūtras 3.2.27-29. Śaṁkara considers the examples of ahikuṇḍala and prakāśāśraya as supporting the identity of Brahman and the world. According to him only identity is essential while the difference is due to māyā. After giving a set of scriptural passages supporting difference and identity between Brahman and jīva he points out in his bhāṣya on sūtra 3.2.27:

....tatrevam ubhaya vyapadeśe sati yady abheda evaikāntatogrhyate bhedavyapadeśonirālambana eva syāt. ata ubhaya vyapadeśa darśanād ahikundalavad atra tattvam bhavitum arhati. yathāhir ityabhedah kundālā bhogaprāmśutvādīnīti tu bheda evam ihāpīti.

Here he acknowledges that both *abheda* and *bheda* are equally vouched for by Scripture. Therefore he considers the relation between the highest self and the soul as analogous to that of *ahikuṇḍala*. Viewed as a whole, the snake is one, non-different, while an element of difference appears if we view it with regard to its coil, hood, erect posture etc. He has similar explanation for *sūtra* 3.2.28, where he states:

athavā prakāśāśrayavad etat pratipattavyam. yathā prakāśah sāvitras tadāśrayaś ca savitā nātyanta bhinnāv ubhayor api tejastvāviśeṣāt. atha ca bhedāvyapadeśabhājau bhavata evam ihāpīti.

Here he points out that although there cannot be an absolute difference between the sun and its rays since both consist of fire, yet they can be spoken of as different. Similarly he considers the relation between Brahman and the jīva as one of identity and difference.

An advaitin cannot give any better interpretation than what Samkara has done, for these sūtras positively state a distinction between the snake and its coil and the ray and its substratum. Samkara, in all fairness, does not twist the sūtra nor does he attack Nimbārka under these two sūtras, but under the next sūtra (BS 3.2.29) pūrvavadvā⁸⁹ where he also draws the attention of the bhedābhedavādin to certain implications of his doctrine, and points out that the relation

between Brahman and the world must be interpreted in the way he has done under BS 2.2.25.

According to him:

"If the bondage of the soul is due to nescience only, final release is possible. But if the soul is really and truly bound — whether the soul be considered as a certain condition or state of the highest self as suggested in sūtra 27 or as a part of the highest self as suggested in sūtra 28— its real bondage cannot be done away with, and thus the scriptural doctrine of final release becomes absurd — Nor, finally can it be said that śruti equally teaches difference and non-difference. For, non-difference only is what it aims at establishing, while, when engaged in setting forth something else, it merely refers to difference as something known from other sources of knowledge (viz. perception, etc.)90.

Thus, as a matter of fact, Śaṁkara considers what is stated under the sūtras 27 and 28 as pūrvapakṣa and the real siddhānta view contained in sutra 25⁹¹ above is reaffirmed in sūtra 29. Under sūtra 25, Śaṁkara has explained how Brahman appears dual through the limiting adjunct of meditation and so on, although Brahman is really one without a second. The distinction is made just for the sake of meditation. There is no real difference between Brahman and jīva, just as the rays of the sun appear crooked, straight and so on, in accordance with the shape and the position of the fingers and the like through which they are passing, but the real sun remains what it really is.

Nimbārka considers the sūtra 29 above as referring to sūtra 2.1.25 krtsna prasaktir niravayavatva śabdakopo vā wherein objections like the consequence of the entire transformation of Brahman and its having parts etc. have been refuted. He is also unaware that Śaṁkara refutes his bhedābheda doctrine under BS 3.2.29. In the same way it is not known to the Saurabhakāra that Śaṁkara considers sūtra 3.2.29 as referring to sūtra 3.2.25. Similarly it is significant that the Saurabhakāra is completely unaware of the advaitic interpretation of sūtra 3.2.25 by Śaṁkara. Nimbārka's interpretation of BS 3.2.25 is very primitive, if not naive, for he says: "Just as there is manifestation of the

sun, fire and the like through the repetition of the means resorted to by those who long for them, so there is "non-difference" in the case of Brahman too, i.e., there is manifestation of Brahman. The sense is that the direct vision of Brahman results from the repetition of the *Sadhanās* or the means consisting in perfect meditation".

Incidentally, it may be noted here that Rāmānuja and Bhaskara show clear influence of Samkara in their respective commentaries on these sūtras. This is evident from a comparative study of their bhasuas on sūtra 3.2.25. But there is no such influence on Nimbarka. Ramanuja too considers BS 3.2.2792 as constituting a pūrvapaksaview regarding the relation between the non-sentient (i.e. acit) and Brahman and interprets it to mean that the non-sentient is a particular state (samsthānaviśesa) of Brahman, just as the coil is of the serpent. He considers sūtra 3.2.28 as criticizing the preceding view by pointing out that if the non-sentient world be a state of Brahman, as the coil is of the snake, then the world will become non-different from Brahman, since the coil is nothing but the snake itself. This second views is also a pūrvapaksa view, which regards the relation between the non-sentient world and Brahman as the relation between the rays and the sun. It considers that the world is a form (rūpa) of Brahman and is different from Brahman.

Rāmānuja, like Samkara, considers sūtra 3.2.29 pūrvavad vā as stating the correct conclusion. He points out that the pūrvapaksa views taught in the previous two sūtras implicate Brahman as partaking of the faults of the non-sentient world. Nor is Rāmānuja in favour of considering Brahman as a mere abstract generic character because the teachings of śruti and smrti are against it. Therefore, the right view, according to him, is that the non-sentient matter stands to Brahman in the same relation as the one previously proved with regard to the individual soul in sūtra 2.3.42 (amśo nānāvyapadeśād anyathā cāpi dāśakitavāditvam adhiyata eke) and 2.3.45 (prakāśādivat tu naivam parah) namely, a relation between attributes and substance. The conclusion is that just as the individual soul is a part as well as an attribute of Brahman, and as such different from him, the insentient matter is also on the one hand, both a part and an

attribute of Brahman, and, on the other hand, is different from him⁹³.

Thus both Śaṁkara and Rāmānuja reject the bhedābheda doctrine of Nimbārka on different grounds. On the contrary, Nimbārka is unaware of the doctrines of Śaṁkara, Rāmānuja, etc. and of the logical refinements of their language, the philosophical implications of their argument, the subtleties of their expressions and the accurateness of their ideas, not only in their mutual disputes, but even against the bhedābhedavāda itself, which Nimbārka upholds as the essence of the Vedānta philosophy. If Nimbārka had been a post-Śaṁkara, and much more a post-Rāmānuja, originator of a system or school he should have taken these factors into account.

(g) The Gāyatri

I may briefly point out a few more instances where Samkara considers as the pūrvapaksa the doctrinal positions that are held by Nimbarka. In his bhasua on BS "chando'bhidhānān neti cen na tathā 1.1.2594 ceto'rpananigadāt tathā hi darśanam". Śamkara points out in his alternate interpretation that another commentator is of the opinion that Gāyatri directly denotes Brahman on account of the equality of number. For just as the Gayatri metre has four feet consisting of six syllables each, so Brahman also has four feet. Here Samkara seems to explain what Nimbarka in his unique style states briefly. Incidentally it must be pointed out that Srinivasa gives two interpretations of the sūtra. They appear to be a summation of the two interpretations given by Samkara, one of which agrees with that of Nimbarka.

(h) The reality of jiva

Another instance where Śaṁkara shows his awareness of an earlier vedāntin, whose views are identical to that of Nimbārka is in BS 1.3.19 when he states apare tu vādinaḥ pāramārthikam eva jīvaṁ rūpam iti manyante asmadīyāś cakecit. It is to be noted that Nimbārka accepts the reality of the individual soul both in bondage and in liberation. Under this sūtra, Śaṁkara takes pains to explain his position at length against some fellow vedāntin and asserts that the jīva as such does not have any reality; it is real only in so far as

it is identical with Brahman. Here he makes his usual remark that wherever a difference between jiva and Brahman is denoted by the Sūtrakāra, he does not mean a difference in reality, but only wants to remove all the false popular notions due to which people attribute the limited nature of jīva to Brahman (vide Śāmkarabhāṣya 1.3.19). Significantly, by such a remark Śaṁkara betrays his consciousness of the fact that the Sūtrakāra, as well as some earlier Vedāntins, refer here to a difference between the jīva and Brahman.

(i) The agentship of jīva

In Saurabha 2.3.39 Nimbārka accepts the svābhāvika kartrtva of the individual self. According to Nimbārka the main thrust of the sūtras 2.3.32-39 is to establish the svābhāvika kartrtva of the jīva. Therefore he interprets sūtra 2.3.39 yathā ca takṣa ubhayathā⁹⁵ in a straight forward manner, and asserts, against the Sāmkhyas, that the soul is an active agent and has the freedom to be active or not. Here is what he had to say:

ātmecchayā yathā takṣa (tathā) karoti na karotīty ubhayathā vyavasthā sidhyati, buddheḥ kartrˌtve icchā'bhāvād vyavasthā'bhāvaḥ.

Samkara denies the svābhāvikakartrtva of the soul when he says: yad uktam sastrarthavatvadibhir hetubhih svābhāvikam ātmanah kartrtvam iti tan na... He goes back to the previous seven sūtras and refutes all that he seemed to have accepted there. His conclusion is that kartrtva is only a super imposition on the soul due to its connection with the limiting adjuncts. Ghate 96 rightly points out that the sūtra cannot at all mean what Samkara wants it to. First of all, the particle, 'ca' in the sūtra goes against him. Even Samkara is aware of it; therefore he has to say "tvartham cayam pathitah". Secondly, the example of the taksa (the carpenter) in a straightforward way establishes the kartrtva of the self, rather than a superimposed agentship. Ghate is right in pointing out that Samkara has failed to substantiate his own theory of a superimposed agentship of the jiva, for the carpenter is, as a matter of fact, active through his body too, as much as the tools, because the tools cannot act at all. unless the body does.

Significantly the Sāmkhyas do not accept any real agentship of the jīva. They attribute it to the medium of buddhi, which Nimbārka rejects here and establishes the natural agentship of the jīva. Therefore the studied attempt of Śamkara to deny the agentship of the jīva seems to be against the position of Nimbārka.

(j) Ubhayalingatva of Brahman

Similarly, Śamkara criticizes under sūtra 3.2.11 (na sthānato'pi parasyobhaya lingam sarvatra hi) the doctrine of a pūrvapakṣin who in conformity with the scriptural passages, ascribes a double character to Brahman. That pūrvapakṣin appears to be Nimbārka, who accepts such a doctrine⁹⁷.

(k) Dreams

I may also point out the discussion on dreams and dream objects under BS3.2.1-6 as another instance where Śaṁkara seems to consider Nimbārka as the pūrvapakṣin. Here the siddhānta doctrine according to Nimbārka is that the dream objects are real and are created by the Lord. A critical perusal of the bhāṣya of Śaṁkara on these sūtras gives the impression that his pūrvapaksin is Nimbārka, because what Nimbārka considers as the siddhānta is taken as the pūrvapakṣa view by Śaṁkara. According to Śaṁkara the siddhānta is that the dream and the dream objects are illusory, yet they may indicate real objects or future happenings. They are in fact created by the individual soul itself and not by the Paramātman (as alleged by the pūrvapakṣin), even though the Paramātman is active as the controller of the souls even in dream state.

Interestingly Bhāskara, the "unbelieving disciple" of Śaṁkara accuses him here of both deluding the people by teaching the objects of waking state as illusory and misinterpreting the sūtrakāra⁹⁸. Rāmānuja, who accepts a view very similar to that of Nimbārka, on the contrary, interchanges the order of the sūtras (from the order given by Nimbārka and Śaṁkara). Therefore there is no need for Rāmānuja to attack Śaṁkara as done by Bhāskara. He also takes into consideration the arguments advanced by Śaṁkara and attempts a refutation of Śaṁkara. According to him the

texts like "there are no chariots etc." mean only that in a dream there are no chariots and horses to be perceived by any other person but the dreamer. The supreme person creates these dream objects only to be perceived by the dreamer and that too for a certain limited time only. Therefore these dream objects are called wonderful. The creation of such wonderful things is possible for the supreme person, who can immediately realize all his wishes⁹⁹.

(I) The departure of the jiva

Let us examine another instance, a comparative study of which may throw some more light on the chronology of the various commentaries themselves. The instance is the description of the successive steps by which the soul passes out of the body. It is contained in BS 4.2.1 ff. Nimbārka and Samkara agree that sūtra 4.2.1 "vānmanasidar sanacchabdāc ca" alludes to Chāndogya 6.8.6 "When a man departs from hence his speech merges in his mind, his mind in his breath, his breath in fire, fire in the highest deity" 100.

Nimbārka accepts the merging of the organ of speech in the mind, because, besides the scriptural declaration it is found that the function of the mind continues even when the organ of speech has ceased to function. He says in Saurabha 4.2.1: vānmanasi sampadyate (Chānd 6.8.6) iti vāg-indriyasya manasi samyogarūpa¹⁰¹ sampattir ucyate. Vāg-indriye uparate'pi manahpravrttidarśanāt vānmanasi sampadyate (Chānd 6.8.6) iti śabdāc ca.

Significantly this view of Nimbārka corresponds to the pūrvapakṣa view as enunciated by Śaṁkara. In the beginning of his bhāsya on this sūtra, Śaṁkara poses a doubt whether the sūtra means to say that speech itself, together with its function, is merged into the mind, or only the function of speech. According to him the pūrvapakṣin maintains that speech itself is merged in the mind. For, this is the only explanation that is in agreement with the direct statement of the scripture, while the other alternative compels us to have recourse to an implied meaning. Now, wherever direct enunciation and implied meaning are in

conflict, the preference has to be given to the former and we therefore maintain that speech itself is merged in the mind.

tatra vāg eva tāvan manasi sampadyata iti prāptam tathā hi — "śrutir anugrhitā bhavati, itarathā lakṣaṇā syāt, śruti lakṣaṇāviśaye ca śrutir nyāyyā na lakṣaṇā, tasmādvāca evāyam manasi pralaya iti....

Thus Samkara in fact presents the pūrvapakṣin more systematically and forcefully than the pūrvapakṣin probably could do. Samkara maintains that the attitude of his pūrvapakṣin here is rather puerile. Although the sūtra speaks of the merging of the speech in the mind, Śamkara points out that this sūtra must be interpreted in the light of the entire pāda. Basing himself on sūtra 4.2.16 avibhāgo vacanāt, he emphatically asserts that only the function of speech is merged in the mind, because the present sūtra means only the mere cessation of the function of speech 102. Moreover if the intention of the present sūtra was to express absorption of the organ of speech itself, there would be non-division in all the cases. And, therefore, for what reason should "non-division" be specifically stated in another case in sūtra 16?

Śamkara offers a basic metaphysical argument in his support. The organ of speech cannot be absorbed into the mind because the mind is not the causal substance of the organ of speech. He says:

yasya hi yata utpattis tasya tatra pralayo nyāyyo mṛdiva śarāvasya. naca manaso vāgutpadyata iti kiñcana pramāṇam asti. vṛṭty udbhavābhibhavau tvaprakṛṭi samāśrayāvapi dṛṣ́yete....

On the other hand, functions originate and are retracted even where they do not inhere in causal substance, for example the function of fire, which is of the nature of heat, springs from fuel, which is of the nature of earth and is extinguishable in water (pārthivebhyo hīndhanebhyas taijasy-āgner-vṛttir-udbhavaty apsu copaśāmyati).

Since Śaṁkara is fully aware that the scripture clearly states that the speech is merged in the mind, he asserts that the scriptural statement can be reconciled with his own interpretation in so far as the function and the thing to which the function belongs are viewed as non-different ¹⁰³. Perhaps

such a clear cut distinction of the function and the thing to which the function belongs is a refinement of the vague distinction that Nimbārka makes between the *vāgindriya* (organ of speech) which merges into the mind and *manaḥ pravr.tti*(the function of the mind) which continues to exist ¹⁰⁴.

A post-Śamkara commentator normally should take into account these arguments and corrections made by Śamkara. This is precisely what is done by Śrīnivāsa, the follower of Nimbārka. He on the one hand, makes a strong defence of Nimbārka and stresses that the merging of speech in the mind is a matter of scriptural declaration, and on the other hand, finds himself weak before Śamkara's argument, so much so he modifies his own position¹⁰⁵. According to him the word sampatti (merging) means only a mere connection and no absorption. (Sampattir iha samyogarūpā jñeya, natu layarūpā)¹⁰⁶. He accepts the argument of Śamkara that the mind is not the material cause of speech. Therefore a real absorption of speech into the mind is not possible at all¹⁰⁷.

Rāmānuja, on the contrary, considers the doctrinal position of Śaṁkara as the pūrvapakṣa. Although he does not name the opponent, his allegation that according to the opponent the function of speech alone is merged in mind because the mind is not the causal substance of speech¹⁰⁸, fairly shows that his opponent is Śaṁkara. Rāmānuja rejects the view of the opponent with a bold statement that when the function of speech comes to an end, there is no other means of knowledge to assure us that the function only has come to an end and that the organ itself continues to have an independent existence¹⁰⁹.

In the subsequent *sūtras* also Śaṁkara clearly follows his known stand, namely, that it is only the function of the various organs that merges and not the organs themselves.

Śamkara's bhāsya on BS 4.2.3 gives the impression that he has read Nimbārka. It seems that it is the doctrinal position of Nimbārka that he considered as the pūrvapakṣa view. Śamkara acknowledges that the position of the pūrvapakṣin agrees with the scriptural declaration. He, as is his normal practice, reinforces, in all fairness, the position of the pūrvapakṣin with a "tathāhi" statement. He says:

tathāhiannamayam hi somya mana āpomayaḥ prāṇaḥ (Chānd 6.5.4) ity annayoni mana āmananty abyonim ca prāṇam. "āpas cānnam asrjanta" (Chānd 6.3.4) iti śruteh)¹¹¹

Through these clarifications and more adequate scriptural texts Śamkara presents his pūrvapakṣin in a stronger position than the pūrvapakṣin actually could present himself. Śamkara's own siddhānta view is that the mind, after having absorbed the functions of the outer senses within itself, is merged in breath only, in so far as the function of the mind is merged in the function of breath 112. He outrightly rejects any real merging of mind as such in breath, because he insists that the breath cannot be the causal substance of the mind.

It is Rāmānuja who replies to Śamkara. He explains:

tat sarvendriya samyuktam manah prāņe sampadyate prāņena samyujyate. na mano vrtti mātram... manah prānāyor annenād bhi ścāpy āyanamucyate na tat prakrtitvam, aham kāri katvān manasā ākā śa vikārat vāc ca prāņasya, prāņa śabdenā pām lakṣanā ca syāt 113.

Thus according to Rāmānuja the scriptural declaration that "mind is made of food" and "breath is made of water" means only that the mind and the breath are nourished and sustained by food and water, and not that these latter are the causal substances of the former respectively. He points out that it is impossible for food and water to be their causal substances because the mind consists of ahamkāra and breath is a modification of ether and other elements.

In the next $s\bar{u}tra$ 4.2.4 so'dhyak, e $tadupagam\bar{a}dibhyah$, Nimbārka follows the scripture faithfully. According to him the $pr\bar{a}na$ united with the individual soul is finally merged in fire. Such a doctrine is supported by the scripture 114 , and is alluded to in the first $s\bar{u}tra$ of the present $p\bar{a}da^{115}$.

Śaṁkara considers a position, identical to the conclusion of Nimbārka¹¹⁶ as that of the *pūrvapakṣin*, who on the basis of scripture again upholds that the *prāṇa* (the vital breath) is merged in fire (*tejasi*). Here Śaṁkara is aware that the scripture asserts the merging of *prāṇa* in fire and therefore there is no room for doubt. According to Śaṁkara:

idam idānīm prāṇas tejasītyatra cintyate — kim yathā śruti prāṇasya tejasy eva vṛtty upasaṁhāraḥ kim vā dehendriya pañjarādhyakṣe jīva iti. tatra śruter anatiśankyatvāt prāṇasya tejasy eva saṁpattiḥ syāt, aśrutakalpanāya anyānyatvād iti evam prāpte... 117

Thus according to Samkara the *prāṇa* under discussion persists in the *adhyakṣa*, i.e., the *vijñānātman*, because there are scriptural statements supporting the going of the *prāṇa* towards him. He points out that we have to make this addition because the soul is the chief agent in the process of departure.

On the one hand Nimbārka seems to be unaware of the reasons advanced by Śaṁkara in support of the sūtra and, on the other hand, Śrinivāsa seems to be fully aware of them. Although he accepts much of what Śaṁkara says here, his final conclusion is that of Nimbārka namely that there is the merging of prāṇa and not merely the function of prāṇa as held by Śaṁkara. It must also be pointed out that he is here unaware of the beautiful simile presented by Rāmānuja to illustrate the merging of the prāṇa with fire, namely, that in ordinary talk we say Yamunā is flowing towards the sea, although in reality it is the Yamunā joined with the Gaṅgā that flows to the sea¹¹⁸.

In sūtra 5, bhūteṣutac chruteḥ, the discussion is about the final union of this prāṇa which is united with the jīva, taking place with the ultimate elements. Nimbārka brings Bṛh 4.4.5 in his support. Says he:

sā cajīva samyuktasya tejah sahitesu bhūtesu bhavati. Prthivīmayah āpomayo vāyumayah ākāśamayas tejomayah (Brh 4.4.5) iti samcarato jīvasya sarvabhūtamayatva śravanāt.

Samkara on the contrary, reserves the *Brh* 4.4.5 text for the next *sūtra*. Here he sticks to the original *Chāndogya* 4.8.6 with which the discussion commenced in the first *sūtra*. He uses a beautiful simile to illustrate the union of *Prāna-jīva* with the elements. He says, "of a man who first travels from Srughna to Mathura and from Mathura to Pataliputra we may say *in short* that he travels from Srughna to Pataliputra"¹¹⁹.

The philosophical outlook of the commentator determines his approach towards the sūtras 6-11. On the whole Nimbarka appears to be completely unaware of the special twist that Samkara gives to the sutras 6-11. We leave aside these sūtras and come to sūtra 12, which reads pratisedhād III cen na śārīrāt spasto hy ekesām. Nimbārka considers this sutra as one, the first part of which states an objection, which is replied to in the second part. On the basis of Brh 4.4.6 "athākāmayamāno yo'kāmo niskāma āptakāma ātmakāmo na tasya prana utkramanti" the sūtra itself contains a prima facie objection, denying the departure of the sense organs of a knower from the body. The reply of Nimbarka 120 is that there is no such contradiction, since it is only a denial of the departure of the sense organs from the embodied soul that is the topic of discussion. It is clear from the reading of the text according to another branch of vedic tradition, viz. "from him the vital breath does not depart. (Sat Br 14.7.2.8). Therefore it can be concluded that scripture denied the departure of the sense organs from the embodied soul¹²¹.

Samkara breaks the *sūtra* into two and considers the first part consisting of *pratiṣedhāt...śarīrāt* as the *pūrvapakṣa* and the second part as the *siddhānta*. Thus by dividing the *sūtra* into two, he arrives at a conclusion, which is exactly the opposite to that of Nimbārka. Here again Śaṁkara considers a doctrine identical to that of Nimbārka as the *pūrvapakṣa*. In *sūtra* 7 above, Śaṁkara has already made a distinction between relative and absolute immortality, resulting from lower and higher knowledge respectively. He considers *sūtra* 12-14¹²² as referring to the higher knower.

Śamkara firmly asserts that *Brh* 4.4.6 denies the departure of the *prāṇāḥ* out of the body of the higher knower. He puts into the mouth of the *pūrvapakṣin* a statement to the effect that the passage quoted does not deny the departure of the *prāṇāḥ* from the body but from the embodied soul. This is precisely the doctrine of Nimbārka. Śamkara explains it better than Nimbārka. Śamkara explains that the *Bṛh*. text quoted does not deny the departure of the *prāṇāḥ* from the body but from the embodied soul is known from the fact that in another śākhā we have not the genitive case (ṣaṣṭhi) tasya (his), but the ablative case (paṇcamī) tasmāt, "(from him) the

prāṇāḥ do not depart". For, the genitive case which expresses only a relation in general, is determined towards some special relation by the ablative case met within another sākhā. And as the embodied soul, which has a claim as the exaltation and the bliss is the chief topic of the adhikaraṇa we construe the words tasmāt to mean "not from the body" but "from the embodied soul". The sense, therefore, is that from that soul when about to depart the prāṇas do not depart, but remain with it. The soul of him who dies therefore passes out of the body together with the prāṇaḥ¹²³.

Samkara rejects this doctrine of the pūrvapaksin based precisely on the Madhyandina recension, in the second part of the sūtra¹²⁴. He takes sūtras 12-14 as referring to the higher knowers of Brahman and arrives at an exactly opposite conclusion to that of Nimbarka. He explains the various śruti passages 125 as denying the departure of him who knows and as establishing the same for him who does not know. He accepts that the main subject in the passage he quotes in his defence is the jiva, yet he tries to find his way out by asserting that the embodied soul and the body have been viewed as nondifferent 126. According to Samkara those who meditate on the qualified Brahman go out of their bodies and travel through the path of gods. Samkara concludes that for a higher knower there is not even the question of possibility of the departure because the higher knower has become the self of the omnipresent Brahman 127.

Like Śamkara, Śrinivāsa too begins his *bhāṣya* with a reference to *sūtra* 7 of the *pāda*. Perhaps in the light of Śamkara's criticism of the doctrine of Nimbārka, Śrinivāsa reinforces the arguments of his *guru* with more scriptural supports. Here is what he has to say:

....śarīrādayamukkrāntipratiṣedho na bhavati 'atha' kāmayamānaḥ' iti prakṛtam śārīram tacchabdena parāmṛśya "na tasya prāṇā utkrāmantī" ty anena vākyena śārīrāj jīvāt teṣām utkrāntiḥ pratiṣidhyate. tasyeti saṣṭhyā prāṇasambandhitvenāprakṛtasya nirdeśabhāvāt¹²⁸

Thus according to Śrinivāsa, the denial of the departure that *Bṛh* 4.4.6 seems to indicate, as opined by Śaṁkara, is not a denial of the departure of the soul from the body. He points out that having referred to the embodied soul, the

topic of discussion by the word "him" in the text "now he who does not desire", the text goes on to deny the departure of those sense organs "from the embodied soul" by the clause "his sense organs do not go out". Here the sixth case tasua does not refer to the body, which is not mentioned before as connected with the sense organs. What is in fact denied in Brh 4.4.2. and Brh 4.4.4 is only the departure of the sense organs of the jiva in the state of the transmigratory existence in order that there may be the origin of a new body. Further, a separation from the material body does not mean a separation from the sense organs. That means the sense organs accompany him as he proceeds through the path of gods until he attains Brahman. Hence, he asserts against Samkara that what is in fact denied in the reading of some branches is the explicit denial of the separation of the sense organs 129.

Rāmānuja 130, on the other hand, following the interpretation of Nimbārka, and drawing support for his own doctrinal tenet even from the same scriptural text on which Samkara depended for his doctrine faces the criticism of Samkara. According to him the first part of the sūtras denies precisely the view of Samkara (he does not name Samkara, but his doctrine), who bases his arguments on Bṛh 3.2.10-11, containing the discussion between Ārthabhāga and Yājňavalkya. Rāmānuja successfully argues that these texts deny only the moving away of the prāṇāḥ from the embodied individual soul, and not from the body. In his lengthy bhāṣya, he further denies that the scriptural passages, quoted by his pūrvapakṣin (i.e. Śamkara) from the discussion of Ārthabhāga, deal with the knowledge of Brahman as presumed by Śamkara.

Thus, the detailed polemics of Śamkara, Śrīnivāsa and above all Rāmānuja make it amply clear that Nimbārka alone is unaware of the issues they have raised in the discussion. It also makes it evident that the *Saurabha* is one of the pre-Śamkara *vrttis* on the *Brahmasūtras*. It must also be pointed out that, although there is similarity in the doctrinal position of Nimbārka and Rāmānuja in this section of the *pāda*, a comparative study of their *bhāṣyas* makes it very clear that there is no valid reason to raise the question of any kind of

influence of Rāmānuja on Nimbārka as alleged by some scholars. For, it is less reasonable for Nimbārka or Śrīnivāsa, if they were post-Rāmānuja commentators, to leave aside the insights that Rāmānuja throws while refuting the arguments of Śaṁkara, especially of the question of Ārthabhāga as referring to the possessor of true knowledge.

Conclusion

Our study has shown that the pūrvapaksin that Samkara refutes in a number of places cannot be any other known vrttikāra than Nimbārka. We have also seen that in these instances Nimbārka could not possibly be summarizing Samkara, because if that had been the case he could not afford to leave aside the refinements and insights brought by Samkara. No post-Samkara commentator can defend his theory by making a mere clumsy summary of what Samkara presents as the pūrvapaksa. Nor could he possibly begin a new school of thought without refuting Samkara in those instances. A post-Samkara founder of a school has to take into account the bhasya of Samkara. In fact, the aupadhika bhedabhedavada of Bhaskara and the visistadvaitavada of Rāmānuja seem to be scholarly attempts under the influence of Samkara to re-interpret the ancient bhedabhedavada. Our examination of the bhasyas of Nimbarka, Śamkara, Śrinivasa and Rāmānuja leads us to accept that Nimbārka is the earliest and the most ancient commentator among them. Furthermore, a comparative study of Kaustubha of Śrinivasa and the Śribhāsya of Rāmānuja on the above sūtras shows that the Kaustubhakara is unaware of the insights brought by Rămānuja as well as the answers he makes to the criticism of Samkara.

Chapter 5

ŚRĪNIVĀSA: A POST-ŚAMKARA BHĀŞYAKĀRA

Introduction

While discussing the pre-Śamkara nature of the Saurabha in the last chapter, we have pointed out that Śrīnivāsa, the Kaustubhakāra, seems to be influenced by Śamkara in a number of places. This fact goes against the traditional belief which considers Śrīnivāsa, regarded as the first disciple of Nimbārka¹, to be a contemporary of Vajranābha, the greatgrandson of Śrīkṛṣṇa². Therefore a detailed study of Śrīnivāsa is being undertaken in this chapter.

According to the AC his parents are Ācāryapāda and Lokamatī³. It is also said that Śrīnivāsa was born and brought up at the hermitage of Nimbārka, who took special care for his education. He is also said to be the author of the Laghustavarājastotra, a small work consisting of 40 verses glorifying Nimbārka. According to the AC, he had also written a commentary on the Bhagavadgītā and the Upaniṣads⁴. N.D. Sharma attributes a few more works to Śrīnivāsa, on the basis of the writings of later scholars. According to him⁵ there is a reference to Śrīnivāsa's Khyātinirṇaya and Pārijāta-Saurabhabhāṣya in the Setu of Sundarabhaṭṭa, to his Katḥopaniṣadbhāṣya in the Upaniṣadprakīrnikī of Pd. Mānadāsa and to his Rahasyaprabandha in Pañcakālānuṣṭānamīmāmsā. Since none of these works is extant today, their authenticity can not be verified.

After a careful study of the *Vedāntakaustubha* some of the modern scholars among the followers of Nimbārka, e.g. A.P. **Bhattacharya**⁶ and **Vrajavallabha**⁷ do not consider Śrīnivāsa to be a contemporary of Vajranābha. They point out that such an early existence of Śrīnivāsa cannot be accepted since he actually quotes from Dharmakīrti (7th century A.D.). While refuting the Yogācāra school of Buddhism, Śrīnivāsa quotes the following passage from Viprabhikṣu. He explains:

uktam ca viprabhikṣuṇāpi: apratyakṣopalambhasya nārthadrṣṭiḥ prasiddhyati avibhāgo'pi buddhyātmā viparyāsitadarśanaiḥ grāhyagrāhaka samvitti bhedavān iva lakṣyate iti⁸

Of these lines, the first is attributed to Dharmakīrti by Madhvācārya in his Sarvadarśana Saṃgraha⁹ and the last two lines form the verse 354 of the second chapter called pratyakṣapariccheda of Pramāṇavārttīkam¹⁰, a work universally accepted as that of Dharmakīrti. From the above references the identification of Viprabhikṣu with Dharmakīrti can be made with certainty¹¹. This Dharmakīrti is said to have lived in 650 A.D., and is considered to be a contemporary of Ācārya Śilabhadra of Nalanda. Obviously Śrīnivāsa, who quotes from Dharmakīrti cannot be a contemporary of Vajranābha, as claimed by AC^{12} .

1. The Vedantakaustubha is not an independent work

Although modern scholars among the followers of Nimbārka do not consider Śrīnivāsa to be pre-Dharmakirti commentator, they, nevertheless, consider him to be pre-Śamkara mainly on the ground that Śrīnivāsa does not refute any of the theories of Śamkara¹³. According to them if Śrīnivāsa had been a post-Śamkara bhāṣyakāra he would have defended the caturvyūhavāda of the Vaiṣṇavas against Śamkara¹⁴.

We have to examine the problem in detail. First of all, it must be pointed out that as a commentary on the *Brahmasūtras*, the *Vedāntakaustubha* is not an independent work as such. The *raison d'être* of the *Kaustubha* is to explain the *Vedāntapārijāta Saurabha* of Nimbārka. In

Kaustubha 1.1.1. Śrīnivāsa himself states his objective in writing the Kaustubha in the following words:

atha tu tadājňayā taduktavartmanā tadanugraha kāmeņa tacchi şyeņa mayā mṛdumitapado vedāntakaustubhas tadbhāvārthaprakāśako viduṣām upakārāya viracyate.

Thus the primary aim of the *Kaustubha* is to explain the sense of the *Vedāntapārijāta Saurabha*. Therefore the mere fact that Śrīnivāsa does not refute any of the rival schools of Vedānta does not mean in itself that he is unaware of them. Since Nimbārka does not criticize any of the rival Vedānta schools, it was also not within the purview of Śrīnivāsa either to do so, because his main concern was only the exposition of the doctrine of Nimbārka. Nothing prevents him, on the contrary, to make use of the better insights that he finds in the *bhāṣyas* of other *ācāryas* for the sole purpose of explaining the doctrine of Nimbārka better.

This being the raison d'être of the Kaustubha we cannot expect its author to make a defence of the vyūhavāda against Śamkara, because as we have already pointed out Nimbarka does not bother to bring in the vyūhavāda under BS 2.2.42-45, but he directs his energies against the Saktas. How can we expect Śrinivāsa to go all the way out to make a defence of the vyūhavāda, not found in the Saurabha? Therefore though Śrinivāsa was a Vaisnavabhāsyakāra, it was not necessary for him to defend the vyūhavāda, even if he had been a post-Samkarabhāsyakāra. Besides, we have noted in chapter one, vyūhavāda was a doctrine of Pañcarātra Vaisnavism, while Nimbārka was a Bhāgavata Vaisnava. Those who consider Śrinivāsa to be a pre-Śamkara Vedāntin appear to be led by two main assumptions. Firstly, they take for granted that all the references to the bhedabhedavada found in the writings of Samkara are references to Nimbarka and Śrinivāsa. Secondly, they also seem to presume that Samkara, who appears to be aware of Nimbarka must also be aware of Śrinivasa, who is regarded as the immediate disciple of Nimbārka. This second presumption is based on the fact that guruparamparas present Śrinivasa invariably as the immediate disciple of Nimbarka. Thue, Srinivasa also claims himself to be a disciple of Nimbarka as we have seen above. But in the face of contrary evidences, we need not give

undue significance to this claim than to the claim of Nimbārka that his *guru* is Nārada ¹⁵. It means that Śrīnivāsa belongs to the tradition of Nimbārka. It does not mean that he must be the immediate disciple of Nimbārka, as claimed by the *guruparamparās* written down centuries later.

2. Is Śamkara influenced by Śrinivasa?

Now, according to some modern followers of Nimbārka¹⁶ the pūrvapakṣa that Śaṁkara raises in 2.1.14 is what Śrīnivāsa establishes as siddhānta in 2.1.13. They assert that both the letter and the spirit of the bhāṣya confirm that Śaṁkara is refuting Śrīnivāsa. But our study of the respective commentaries of Nimbārka, Śaṁkara and Śrīnivāsa strongly shows that Śrīnivāsa was influenced by Śaṁkara rather than Śaṁkara by him. Sūtra 2.1.13 reads bhoktrāpatter avibhāgas cet syāl lokavat. As pointed out by Ghate, the difference in the interpretations of this sūtra by the various bhāṣyakāras mainly turns on the understanding of the word bhoktrāpatti¹⁷.

A comparative study of the Saurabha and the Kaustubha reveals that there is a deviation in the interpretation of Śrinivāsa from that of his guru. Under this sūtra Nimbārka attempts to answer as to how there can still be a distinction between Brahman (the inner controller) and the jiva (the controlled) if Brahman is accepted as the sole upādānakāraṇa¹⁸. He resolves the mystery by a mere statement that in spite of there being a non-difference there is a difference as well between the two, as between the sea and the wave, or between the sun and its rays. Here are his words: Brahmaṇojagad upādānatve jūvarūpeṇa brahmaṇa eva sukha duhkhabhoktṛtvāpatter vedaprasiddho bhoktṛṇiyantṛvibhāgo

According to Śrinivāsa, on the contrary, the primary objection of the opponent is that if Brahman is accepted as the *upādānakāraṇa*, then there must be no distinction between the enjoyer and the object enjoyed. The implications of such an objection, according to him, is that all effects whatsoever being non-different from their cause the enjoyer, i.e. the jīva, will become the object enjoyed, and the object

na syād iti cet. avaibhāge'pi samudra tarangayoriva surva

tat prabhayor iva tayor vibhāgah syāt.

enjoyed, i.e. the body, the sense organs, and the sense objects will become the enjoyer.

Thus Śrīnivāsa interprets the *sutra* differently from Nimbārka, the exposition of whose *bhāṣya* is the only avowed purpose of Śrīnivāsa's work. Śrīnivāsa does not forget his duty. He explains the position of Nimbārka with further details in an additional interpretation¹⁹.

It is difficult to explain why Śrīnivāsa gives a different interpretation of the objection as the primary one and the interpretation of Nimbārka as an additional one. One thing is certain that his first interpretation is identical to the one given by Śaṁkara. According to Śaṁkara the objection here is against the non-difference of the world from Brahman, which is the *Upādānakāraṇa*. The objector, according to Śaṁkara, points out that the distinction of enjoyer and objects of enjoyment is well known from ordinary experience and such a distinction would be destroyed if the enjoyer passed over into the object of enjoyment and vice-versa. Such a passing over results due to the acceptance of the non-difference between the world and Brahman, which is the *Upādānakāraṇa* of the world²⁰.

Thus, one of the two interpretations of the objection by Śrinivasa agrees with that of Śamkara, namely that the word bhoktrapatteh means because the enjoyer will become the object enjoyed and the vice-versa. His second interpretation agrees with Nimbarka, namely that the word bhoktrapatteh means "because the enjoyer will become controller and viceversa. In this context, it may be pointed out that the avowed purpose of Śrinivasa, namely, the exposition of the philosophy of Nimbarka cannot in any way prevent him from adopting the better interpretations of the sūtras by others. Perhaps that is what he does here, for here he considers not only the bhedabheda relation between Brahman and the jiva as Nimbarka does but also between the jiva and the jagat (the world) as well. Hence, Śrinivāsa goes a step forward over Nimbarka and defends the bhedabheda relation on two fronts viz., between the jiva and the Brahman on the one hand, and the jiva (the enjoyer) and the world (enjoyed) on the other²¹. He brings the example of the pots, dishes, etc., and the lump of clay as their material cause; bracelets, earrings, etc, and gold as their material cause; leaves, fruits, etc., and tree as their material cause. In all these instances, he points out, there is both a difference and non-difference between the various causes and their respective effects. In the same way, there is also a mutual distinction between the enjoyer and the object enjoyed, although they are non-different from Brahman, their material cause. Similarly, in spite of their non-distinction there may still be a distinction between the enjoyer and the controller just as pots, jars etc., though by nature non-different from the clay, as having no existence and activity apart from the clay, are yet by nature different from clay, possessing as they do their own peculiar attributes which the clay lacks²².

Samkara too, as we have seen earlier, considers that the objection contained in the sūtra is against Brahman's being the upādānakārana. Now the solution he proposes here is based on the example of the sea and its waves. He says that even in advaita philosophy, a distinction between the enjoyer and the object enjoyed may exist, just as the waves, foam, bubbles and other modifications of the sea, although are not different from the water of the sea, nevertheless exist, sometimes in the state of mutual separation, sometimes in the state of conjunction. Thus, on the one hand, they are nondifferent from the sea and on the other hand, they are different from each other. On the basis of the example of the sea and the waves Śamkara develops his peculiar advaita theory about the relation of jiva and Brahman, in which the distinction is due to illusory limiting adjuncts²³. In reality there is ananyatva between the cause and the effect²⁴.

That takes us to sūtra 2.1.14 which reads tadananyatvam ārambhaṇa śabdādibhyaḥ. It forms the first sūtra of the arambhadhikaraṇam²⁵ according to Nimbārka, Śaṃkara and Śrīnivāsa. Under this sūtra, Nimbārka denies any absolute difference between the effect and the cause on the basis of the Chāndogya texts "vācārambhaṇaṃ vikāro nāmadheyam mṛttiketyeva satyam. (Chānd 6.1.14), aitadātmyam idam sarvam tat satyam...tattvam asi (Chānd 6.8.7, 6.9.4, 6.10-3, 6.16.3) sarvam khalv idam brahma (Chānd 3.14.1). He understands the word ananyatva in the sense of na atyanta bhinnatva.

This interpretation of Nimbārka naturally determines the line of interpretation for Śrīnivāsa. He has to show the non-difference of the effect from the cause. Therefore he considers the asatkāryavādins, the Vaiśeṣikas, as the opponents against whom this sūtra is directed, because the Vaiśeṣikas uphold an absolute difference between the cause and the effects²⁶. He therefore, interprets the word ananyatva in the sense of non-difference²⁷. He, interprets also the world ārambhaṇa to show that the effects originating from Brahman, the causes are non-different from the cause²⁸. Here he does not seem to be concerned with the satkāryavāda schools, whose understanding of the satkāryavāda varies from his own.

Śaṁkara is also a satkāryavādin. He takes the term ananyatva of the sūtra in the sense of absolute identity. Unlike the other satkāryavādins he does not accept brahmapariṇāmavāda. His doctrine is known as brahmavivartavāda²⁹. In connection with the sūtra under consideration, he develops at length the theory of vivarta, on the basis of the word vācārambhaṇam. It is well known that most of the pre-Śaṁkara Vedāntins accepted brahmapariṇāmavāda and upheld the reality of the created world, of which Brahman is the Upādānakāraṇa. Under this sūtra, therefore, Śaṁkara criticizes such a view. Who is this pūrvapakṣin of Śaṁkara? Is Śrīnivāsa, who also teaches such a view in similar language under sūtra 13 the pūrvapakṣin of Śaṁkara? Below we give their respective doctrinal positions.

Śrīnivāsa

"In ordinary life although pots, dishes and the rest, having the lump of clay as their material cause; bracelets, earrings and the rest, having gold as their material cause; foams, waves and the rest, having the sea as their material cause; and leaves, fruits and the rest, having the tree as their material cause; are all non-different from their respective causes, there is still a mutual distinction among the particular effects themselves. In exactly the same manner, there may be a mutual distinction between the enjoyer and the object enjoyed although they are non-different from Brahman,

having Brahman as their material cause. Similarly inspite of their non-distinction, there may still be a distinction between the enjoyer and the controller, just as pots, dishes and the rest though by nature non-different from the clay, as having no existence and activity apart from the clay, are yet by nature different too, from the clay possessing as they do their own peculiar attributes which the clay lacks. Likewise, there is a natural relation of difference-non-difference between Brahman and the individual soul. There is, indeed, no inconsistency here. Hence it is established that the doctrine of the causality of Brahman is not open to the above objection."

Śamkara

"So this manifold world with its objects of enjoyment, enjoyers and so on has no existence apart from Brahman. But it might be objected. Brahman has in itself elements of manifoldness. As the tree has many branches, so Brahman possesses many powers and energies dependent on those powers. Unity and manifoldness are therefore both true. Thus, a tree considered in itself is one, but it is manifold if viewed as having branches, so the sea in itself is one, but manifold as having waves and foam, so the clay in itself is one, but manifold if viewed with regard to the jars and dishes made of it. On this assumption, the process of final release resulting from right knowledge may be established in connection with the element of unity (in Brahman) while the two processes of common worldly activity and of activity according to the Veda—which depend on the Karmakanda— may be established in connection with the element of manifoldness. And with this view the parallel instances of clay etc agree very well."

From the above comparison it is clear that while Śrīnivāsa is trying to establish that *Brahmakāraṇavāda* is not subject to the objection of non-distinction between the enjoyer and the enjoyed³⁰, Śaṁkara is trying to project the *anekātmakatvavāda* of Brahman, the doctrine of the *pūrvapakṣin*. They base their arguments on similar examples to prove their respective position. It is probable that they got these examples from some earlier common source.

Here the interpretation of the $s\bar{u}tra$ by Śrinivāsa differs from that of Nimbārka³¹. Therefore it is more probable that he got these examples of tree, its leaves and fruit from some other source. These examples are not found anywhere in the $Saurabha^{32}$.

Nimbārka was a supporter of amśāmsī sambandha (the relationship between the part and the whole) or gunaguni sambandha (the relationship between the attributes and the substance). The drstanta he brings in support of his theory is samudrataranga (the ocean and the waves) and sūryatadprabhā (the sun and its rays) respectively. The relation between the leaves, fruits and the tree is merely a biological or a physical one, and that cannot be considered to be an adequate example in support of the above metaphysical doctrine of amśāmśi sambandha. In amśāmśi relation the amśa (part) does not mean merely a physical part. It has a metaphysical connotation. Similarly amśin (whole) is not merely the sum total of the amsas, otherwise Brahman (the amsin) will turn out to be the sum total of all the finite beings (amsas). In which case, the transcendence and "the otherness" of Brahman, which Nimbarka defends at all costs, will be in jeopardy.

Also, the respective doctrinal perspectives of Śrīnivāsa and Śaṁkara in the above text is different. As is evident from their respective texts given above the similarity in the use of language and style is so insignificant. Therefore it cannot be conclusively proved that Śaṁkara is influenced by Śrīnivāsa, rather than the latter by the former.

Besides, even if Śamkara is influenced by Śrīnivāsa, he is not making a direct verbatim quotation from Śrīnivāsa, as for example, the latter had done from Viprabhikṣu, which we discussed earlier. Therefore, just on the basis of doctrinal similarity alone, and in the absence of further substantiating evidences, we cannot conclude that Śamkara is influenced by Śrīnivāsa. On the other hand, the influence of Śamkara could be on Śrīnivāsa in so far as the latter differs from Nimbārka, the exposition of whose doctrine is the explicit raison d'être of the Kaustubha.

Lastly, there are many other instances in the *bhāṣya* of Śrīnivāsa, which show a clear influence of Śaṁkara on him,

so much so he appears to adopt the better interpretation given by Samkara on many sūtras as the first alternative while explaining the interpretation of Nimbārka as a poor second alternative. We will discuss some of these instances later on. Such a procedure, it must be pointed out, on the part of the Kaustubhakāra shows that his primary concern, namely, the interpretation of the Saurabha did not hinder him from adopting certain better insights from the earlier bhāṣyakāras provided these insights did not contradict the bhedābheda doctrine of the Saurabha.

So, the position of the followers of Nimbārka that the pūrvapakṣa in the Śaṁkarabhāṣya 2.1.14 is what Śrīnivāsa states as the siddhānta in the Kaustubha 2.1.13 is a bit presumptious. For, it could very well be an adaptation of the finer pointṣ by Śrīnivāsa from Śaṁkara. We find in a number of places Śrīnivāsa accepting the interpretation of Śaṁkara as an alternative to the interpretation of Nimbārka. Below we consider a few such instances:

3. Śrinivāsa adopts Śamkara's interpretation

Under the sūtra 1.1.19 "kāmāc ca nānumānāpekṣā" Śrīnivāsa gives two interpretations. The first part of the bhāṣya of Śrīnivāsa on this sūtra seems to be an adaptation of Śamkara (according to whom it is sūtra 18 of the pāda), while the second part that of Nimbārka.

Nimbārka

"If the individual soul be admitted to be the cause, it must depend on a material cause, viz. on *pradhāna* which is an (object of) "inference" just as a potter has to depend on clay and the rest in creating pots and the like. But the highest person, omnipotent and non-material, consisting of bliss, has to depend on nothing. Why? On account of desire i.e. on account of intention as declared by the scriptural text: He desired: May I be many (*Tait* 2.6). Hence that which consists of bliss is different from that (*Viz.* the individual soul)."

Śamkara

"Since in the passage "he desired, may I be many, may I grow forth", which occurs in the Chapter treating of the

ānandamaya (Tait 2.6), the quality of feeling desire is mentioned, that which is inferred, i.e. the non-intelligent pradhāna assumed by the Sāmkhyas cannot be regarded as being the self consisting of bliss and the cause of the world. Although the opinion that the pradhāna is the cause of the world, has already been refuted in the sūtra 1.1.5, it is here, where favourable opportunity presents itself, refuted for a second time on the basis of the scriptural passage about the cause of the world feeling desire, for the purpose of showing the uniformity of view (of all the scriptural passages)."

Śrinivasa

"...The term "consisting of bliss" contains no "reference" to "inference" i.e. to that which is inferred, viz. pradhāna. Why? "on account of desire" i.e. because the text, which refers to that which consists of bliss viz. He desired: "May I be many" (Tait 2.6), mentions one who desires. The sense is that desire means volition, and that is not possible on the part of the non-sentient pradhāna, but is possible on the part of the omniscient Lord of all. Although pradhāna has already been set aside by the aphorism "Because (the creator) sees, not, non-scriptural" (BS, 1.1.5), it is once more set aside here with a view to confirming the "universality of knowing" and hence there is no fault of repetition.

Or else, (an alternative explanation of the $s\bar{u}tra$) — if the individual soul be denoted by the term "consisting of bliss" the topic of the present discussion, it must be the cause of the world as well, and in that case, just as potters have to depend on clay and the rest for creating pots, etc. So the individual soul too must depend on $pradh\bar{a}na$, which is a synonym for inference. But if the omnipotent Brahman be the cause of the world, no such fault arises — this is the sense."

b) Another instance where Śrīnivāsa gives two interpretations is under the sūtra 1.3.10 akṣaram ambarāntadhṛteḥ. Here also his first alternative seems to be a reasonable adaptation of the interpretation of the sūtra by Śamkara while the second alternative seems to be an expansion of what Nimbārka says about the same sūtra.

Nimbārka does not bring up any pūrvapaksin in order to

explain his position on the *sūtra*. His interpretation is a "matter of fact" statement. He says:

"akṣaram brahma, kutaḥ? kāla trayavarttikāryādhāratayā nirddiṣṭasyākāśasya dhāraṇāt.

Samkara, on the other hand, proposes a pūrvapakṣin who maintains that the word akṣara means varṇa (syllable) which is the settled meaning. The siddhānta position according to him is that the akṣara means parameśvara.

According to Śrinivāsa the real issue at stake is whether akṣara means pradhāna or jīva or Brahman. Naturally the siddhānta view is that akṣara is the supreme Brahman. He gives two alternative views³³ of the siddhānta. The first alternative interpretation of Śrinivāsa tallies with that of Śamkara and also of Bhāskara³⁴. Surprisingly Śrinivāsa gives only secondary importance to what Nimbārka has said on this sūtra. Śrinivāsa expands the interpretation of Nimbārka when he says:

"yadvā'ambarasya vāyumata-ākāśasyāntaḥ pārabhūtam kāraṇam avyākṛtam pradhānam tasya dhṛter dhāraṇād ityarthaḥ. yad ūrddham (Bṛh 3.7.7) ityārabhya kālatrayavartikṛtsna vastvādhāratayānirdiṣṭasyākāśaśabda vācyasyā vyākṛta sūkṣma pradhānādi nāmadheyasyādhāratayocyamānam etad akṣaram na pradhānam api tu brahmaiv ety arthaḥ".

It may be too presumptuous to consider on the basis of the above findings alone, that Śrīnivāsa is influenced by Śaṁkara, for wherever the alternative interpretations, given by Śrīnivāsa, tally with the interpretation of the same sūtra by Śaṁkara³⁵ it means only that one of them might have been influenced by the other. But we have to go a step further to say that the influence seems to be of Śaṁkara on Śrīnivāsa rather than of Śrīnivāsa on Śaṁkara. Here we are helped by the fact that throughout the Kaustubha Śrīnivāsa seems to summarize the bhāṣya of Śaṁkara wherever there is no doctrinal controversy between Nimbārka and Śaṁkara³⁶. There are also cases when Śrīnivāsa tries to interpret Nimbārka under the better light shown by Śaṁkara's interpretation inspite of the doctrinal difference between Nimbārka and Śaṁkara. Let us examine a few such instances.

4. Śrinivāsa is influenced by Śamkara

While discussing the two-fold characteristic of Brahman under sūtras 3.2.11-21, the sūtrakāra brings up the dṛṣṭānta of the sun and its reflexion in the water under sūtra 18 "ata eva copamā sūryakādivat. Sūtra 19 "ambuvad agrahaṇāt tu na tathātvam poses a pūrvapakṣaview, which is overruled by sūtra 20 "Vṛddhihrāsabhāktvam antarbhāvād ubhaya samanjasyād evam". This is how Nimbārka, Śaṃkara and Śrīnivāsa take the sūtras, yet there is a difference in their understanding and the interpretations of the sūtras. According to Nimbārka the pūrvapakṣa view is that on account of the apprehension of water to be remote from the sun, but not so the place (i.e. the individual soul in which the Brahman dwells as the antaryāmin) from the whole (i.e. from Brahman) the example cited is not to the point³⁷.

According to Śaṁkara the pūrvapakṣa objection is based on the reason that there is no apprehension of any substance comparable to the water, in the case of Brahman and therefore no parallelism between Brahman and the reflected images of the sun is possible. In the case of the sun and other material luminous bodies there exists a separate material substance occupying a different place, for example the water, on which the light of the sun may be reflected. The self, on the other hand, is not a material thing, and as it is present everywhere and everything is identified with it, there are no limiting adjuncts different from it, and occupying a different place — therefore the instances are not parallel³⁸.

Nimbārka interprets the *siddhānta* in the following manner:

tatrāha: sthāninaḥ sthānāntarbhāvāt tat prayukta vṛddhihrāsabhāktvaṁ dṛṣṭāntena nirākriyate, ubhayasāmañja syād evam vivakṣitāṁsamātram gṛḥyate³⁹

A closer examination of the interpretation of the sūtra 3.2.20 'vṛddhihrāsabhāktvam antarbhāvād ubhayasāmañjasyād evam' by Nimbārka points out that he bluntly denies what seems to be asserted by the sūtra itself. It appears that Nimbārka has to take such an extreme step due to a genuine "misunderstanding" in his comprehension of the point of comparison in the examples and the exemplified. He takes the antarbhāvatva of both Brahman and the

sun as the point of comparison, and not their participation in the increase and the decrease in the reflected objects, which seems to be suggested by the sūtra itself.

Samkara finds it difficult to accept the antarbhāvatva as the point of comparison as Nimbarka would have us understand, because the sun in the example is in fact dūrastha and therefore the answer that Nimbarka gives against the pūrvapaksa is not strong enough and far from convincing. Samkara finds it difficult also to accept the sūtra at its face value. Therefore he reads evam in the sūtra as iva and with this magic wand he interprets the sūtra differently.

In his interpretation Samkara seems to say that he had to accept the drstanta of the sun and its reflection in the water because it is a scriptural drstanta. Yet he points out that there is no complete equality of the two compared objects in all points. The point of comparison according to him is the participation in the increase and decrease and so on. He. however, understands that the sūtra cannot be explained literally. Therefore he adds an iva to the explanation with the result that the participation of Brahman in the attributes and the states of the body becomes unreal. Samkara's explanation is a very cleverly thought out answer to the

pūrvapaksin.

Śrinivāsa seems to adapt this interpretation of Śamkara in order to explain the position of Nimbarka better and at the same time to refute Samkara. Realizing that the interpretation of Nimbarka goes against the letter of the sūtra Srinivasa says that the word na is to be supplied to the sūtra from the preceding sūtra. He denies on the part of Brahman, who is one only and who abides as manifold in the sentient and nonsentient objects as their inner controller, any participation in their increase and decrease, or any division by their respective differences or any pollution due to their respective faults. His final remarks that "the resultant meaning is that there can be no relation of example and the exemplified between two objects when the example proves the exemplified to possess contrary qualities" (yena drstantena-darstanta vaigunyam syānna tayor drstāntadārstāntabhāva iti phalito'rthah) appears to be a reference to Samkara's position that Brahman, although in reality uniform and never changing participates as it were in the attributes and states of the body and the other limiting adjuncts within which It abides. It grows with them as it were, decreases with them as it were, and so on. (evain paramārthato'vikrtam ekarūpam api sad brahma dehādyupādhy antarbhāvād bhajata-iv-opādhi dharmān vrddhihrāsādin).

Śrīnivāsa also interprets the word ubhayasāmānyātof the sūtra as "on account of the appropriateness of the two examples of the sun etc." namely, the sun and the water and the ether and the pot which he brings in support of his explanation. He too explains with the help of these two examples, how there is non-participation of Brahman in the changes that occur in the objects in which He indwells. Just as there is the non-participation of the (universal) ether in the faults of the receptacles on which it is reflected on, Brahman too does not participate in the changes that the jīva and the jagat undergo.

b) Another place where Śrīnivāsa shows an awareness of Śaṁkara is in his *bhāṣya* on *BS* 3.4.32-35⁴⁰. Here Nimbārka, Śaṁkara and Śrīnivāsa discuss the role of works of permanent obligation such as sacrifices, etc.

Śrīnivāsa develops the sūtra 3.4.32 like Śaṁkara with a clear reference both to BS3.4.26 "sarvāpekṣā ca yajñā diśruter aśvavat", which has established that the sacrifices etc. are subsidiary parts of Brahmavidyā, and to Bṛh 4.4.22 "tametam vedānuvacanena brāhmaṇā vividiṣanti yajñena". He develops a pūrvapakṣa which denies the need of the āśramakarmans like sacrifice etc. on the part of one who does not desire knowledge.

The influence of Śaṁkara on Śrīnivāsa is more evident in his *bhāṣya* on *sūtras* 33 and 35 of the same *pāda*. Below are the relevant portions.

BS 3.4.33.

Nimbārka

"Since sacrifice and the rest are enjoined "also as auxiliary" to knowledge in the text. "The Brahmanas desire to know by sacrifice" (Brh4.4.22), they are to be performed also by one who is desirous of salvation, a double purpose being

possible in accordance with the maxim of conjunction and separateness."

Śamkara

"Those works are also co-operative with knowledge just because they are enjoyed as such, viz., in passages such as "Him the Brāhmaṇas seek to know by the study of the Veda etc. This has been explained under sūtra 26.

Therefore texts stating the cooperation of works (with knowledge) have to be interpreted as stating that works as means for the origination of knowledge. We need not fear that thus there arises a contradiction of permanent and non-permanent connection. For, there may be difference of connection even where there is no difference of works. One connection is permanent, resting on the texts about the lifelong performance of the *agnihotra* and so on; of this knowledge is not the result. The other connection is non-permanent, resting on texts such as "Him the Brāhmaṇas seek to know" etc; of this knowledge is the result. The case is analogous to that of the one *Khadira*, which through a permanent connection serves the purpose of the sacrifice, and through a non-permanent connection the purpose of man."

Śrinivāsa

"To the objection viz. If this be so, then sacrifices and the rest cannot be auxiliaries to knowledge — the author replies:

Since sacrifice and the rest are enjoined "also as auxiliary" to knowledge, by way of bringing about its origination, in the passage "Him the Brāhmaṇas desire to know by sacrifice" (Bṛh 4.4.22) and so on, works like sacrifices and the rest are to be performed also by one who is desirous of salvation. If it be objected that the same works cannot serve the purpose of a stage of life and that of knowledge — we reply: that is not so, because even the same works may serve different purposes, in accordance with the maxim "but with regard to one and the same thing being both, there is conjunction and separateness" (Pūrva Mīmārisā Sūtra 4.3.5). Just as the same quality of being made of the Khadira wood is laid down as serving the purpose of scrifices in the passage. "The sacrifi-

cial post is made of the Khadirawood" and is, again laid down as serving the purpose of men in the passage. "For one desiring power, let one make a post of the Khadirawood" so is the case here."

In the above texts Śrīnivāsa also makes use of the example of *Khadira* wood like Śaṁkara⁴¹. Śaṁkara brings the example of *Khadira* wood to substantiate that one and the same work can have a permanent and non-permanent connection. Śrīnivāsa makes use of the same example to show that one and the same *Khadira* wood can have different purposes, because Nimbārka has said in his *bhāṣya* that one and the same work could have a *double purpose*.

c) Similarly the *bhāsya* of Śrīnivāsa on *sūtra* 35 of the same *pāda* shows a significant influence of Śaṁkara:

BS 3.4.35

Nimbārka

"The scriptural text "By means of religious observance one removes one's sins" (Mahānārayaṇa 22.1) shows the non-overpowering of knowledge through the removal of sins — which are the causes of the overpowering of knowledge — by the very same sacrifices and so on, celebrated in the scripture."

Śamkara

"This sūtra points out a further indicatory mark fortifying the conclusion that works co-operate towards knowledge. Scripture also shows that he who is furnished with such means as *Brahmacārya* etc, is not overpowered by such afflictions as passion and the like. Compare the passage, "that self does not perish which they find out by *Brahmacārya*" (*Chānd* 8.5.3). It is thus a settled conclusion that sacrifices etc. are works incumbent on the āśramas as well as conducive towards knowledge."

Śrinivāsa

"The scriptural text "For the self which one finds out through the life of Brahmacārya does not perish" (*Chānd* 8.5.3) shows the non-overpowering of the knowledge of the self by the duties incumbent on the stages of life, such as the life of a religious student and so on. The phrase "The self does not perish" means that the self is not forgotten. Sacrifices and the rest, performed as the mere duties incumbent on the stages of life, lead to the attainment of heaven and so on; those very sacrifices and the rest, performed as auxiliaries to knowledge, give rise to knowledge. Hence there is difference of application, but not difference of works. Hence it is established that the same things are to be performed by both one who is desirous for salvation and one who is not".

As is evident from his bhāsya, Nimbārka considers the sūtra as referring to the passage "dharmeṇa pāpamapanudati" (Mahānārāyaṇa 22.1). But Śrīnivāsa prefers the Chāndogya 8.5.3 passage samādibhir eṣa hy ātmā na naśyati yaṁ brahmacaryeṇānuvindate, as referred to by Śaṁkara. The reason seems to be that the text quoted by Nimbārka is a misfit for the sūtra in comparison to the text quoted by Śaṁkara for the sūtra "anabhibhavam" (non-overpowering). Śrīnivāsa rejects the text of Nimbārka and accepts the text quoted by Śaṁkara. Here two points are worth noting. First of all, Śaṁkara seems to refine Niṁbārka in his explanation and brings a better text to substantiate the sūtra. Secondly, Śrīnivāsa follows Śaṁkara rather than Nimbārka⁴².

5. Śrinivāsa prefers Śamkarite theory

a) I bring one more instance where, in spite of the similarity of interpretation between Nimbārka and Śaṁkara, Śrīnivāsa agrees more with Śaṁkara. Under BS 3.4.40-43⁴³ Nimbārka, Śaṁkara, and Śrīnivāsa discuss the fate of the Naiṣṭhika brahmacārins. Śaṁkara and Śrīnivāsa agree with Nimbārka, in considering sūtra 3.4.42 as stating the pūrvapakṣa view that the failing of a naiṣṭḥikabrahmacārin in his vows is only a minor sin and therefore there is a possibility of purificatory rites for the sins. There is a general agreement between Nimbārka, Śaṁkara and Śrīnivāsa, in the interpretation of sūtra 3.4.40-42, although the bhāṣya of Śrīnivāsa seems to be more of a summary of the bhāṣya of Śaṁkara. But the siddhānta, according to Nimbārka is that falling out from such an exalted state of life is not allowed. In case if someone has the misfortune of deviating from such a

state of life, there is no possibility of an expiation for him. Śrīnivāsa seems to abandon the opinion of Nimbārka when he comes to the *sieldhānta* (BS 3.4.43) and accepts the interpretation of Śamkara, as is evident from the following texts.

BS 3.4.43

Nimbārka

"Whether the deviation of perpetual religious students from their own stage of life be a major or a minor sin "in either case even" they are "outside" the right to the knowledge of Brahman, on account of the *Smṛti* passage: "I do not see any expiation whereby he, the killer of himself, may be purified" (*Agnipurāṇa* 265. 24b) and on account of the conduct of the good (śiṣṭācārāt)."

Śamkara

"But whether lapses from the duties of one's order, committed by those who are bound to chastity, be mortal sins or minor sins, in either case, such persons are to be excluded by honourable men (siṣṭas). For Smṛṭirefers to them in terms of the highest reproach; passages such as the one quoted under sūṭra41, and the following one "he who touches a Brāhmaṇa that has broken his vow and fallen from his order, or a hanged man or one gnawed by worms must undergo the Candrāyaṇa penance". And good custom also condemns them, for good men do not sacrifice, study or attend weddings with such persons."

Śrinivasa

"Whether the deviation of those who are bound by chastity from their own stage of life be a major or a minor sin "in either case even" they are to be kept "outside" indeed by the good. Why? "On account of *Smṛti* and on account of conduct" i.e. on account of the *Smṛti* passage censuring such a deviation, viz. 'I do not see any expiation whereby he, the killer of himself, may be purified' (*Agnipurāṇa* 165, 24b). "If one sees a Brāhmaṇa who ascended (to a high stage) has fallen (there from), one should undergo the *Candrāyaṇa* penance", and

on account of the conduct of the good who always shun one who has deviated from the vow of chastity. Hence it is established that those who have deviated from their stages of life are not entitled to the knowledge of Brāhmaṇ."

In the above passage, we notice that Śrīnivāsa takes a stand against Nimbarka and supports the view of Samkara. According to Nimbarka, irrespective of the fact whether the deviation of a naisthika brahmacārin is a major or a minor sin, he is excluded from the right to the knowledge of Brahman. It implies that he has no right to salvation. Samkara, on the other hand, does not advocate such an extreme step against such sinners. According to him, irrespective of the major or minor nature of their lapses such sinners are to be shunned by good people. This is the line of thought that Śrinivāsa takes against the failings of the naisthika brahmacārins. Significantly, the vocabulary of Samkara and Śrinivasa are so much identical that it looks as if one had the text of the other "on his desk". Besides, if there is an influence of one over the other, it must be the influence of Samkara over Srinivasa because it is Srinivasa who deviates from the "trodden path" of Nimbarka and advocates a more lenient attitude towards the sins of the naisthika brahmacarins. By taking such a stand, under the influence of Samkara. Srinivasa goes a bit astray from his initial intention of only explaining the doctrine of the Saurabha.

b) Again a comparative study of the commentaries of Nimbārka, Śaṅkara and Śrīnivāsa on BS 1.2.11 "guhām praviṣṭāvātmānau hi tad darśanāt" shows that Śrīnivāsa is very much influenced by Śaṅkara. Nimbārka explains the sūtra in a matter of fact manner, without even raising a pūrvapakṣin but goes straight to the Katha texts 3.1.2.12 and 4.7 as his basis and asserts that "the two entered the cave" should be understood as the individual soul and the supreme soul⁴⁴.

Samkāra⁴⁵ and Śrīnivāsa⁴⁶, on the contrary, raise two sets of doubts whether 'the two entered the cave' refer (a) to buddhi and the individual soul or (b) to the individual soul and the supreme soul. Śamkara throws away the first set of doubts on the ground that the two are said to drink i.e. to enjoy the fruit of their works in the world. Only an intelligent

being can drink, for the dual verbal from *pibantau* shows that both are drinking⁴⁷. Śrīnivāsa too asserts that the souls entered into the cave are the two sentient beings alone⁴⁸. It is also the doctrinal position of Nimbārka, but he does not base his doctrine on reasoning, but on the authority of *śruti* alone. In fact, Nimbārka seems to be unaware of the new dimension that Śaṁkara brought here, which Śrīnivāsa adopts as well.

Śaṁkara makes a strong defence of the second possibility, namely, that the two entered the cave refer to the individual soul and the supreme soul alone, although only one of them (i.e. the individual soul) actually *drinks*. In his defence, he brings an analogous example: "just as we see that in phrases such as *chatrino gacchanti* (men with umbrellas are walking) this attribute of being furnished with an umbrella which properly speaking belongs to one man only, is secondarily ascribed to many. So here two agents are spoken of as drinking although only one of them is really drinking⁴⁹. He gives another reason for attributing "drinking" to both the sentient beings, although only the individual soul "drinks", namely, that the Lord makes the soul "to drink" of the prompting agent and the prompted agent have connection with the action of drinking.

Śrinivāsa accepts both these arguments of Śaṁkara and develops his defence in similar lines as is clear from:

chatriņo yāntītivad rtam pibantāv iti nirde sasya sambhavāt jīvah pibati tam aparah pāyayatīti prayojakakarttrtva sambhavāc ca⁵¹.

Another argument that Śaṁkara and Śrīnivāsa bring against the pūrvapakṣin in defence of their own siddhānta is that "the two entered the cave" refer to individual soul and the highest self, on the basis of the fact of their being is of the same nature since both are intelligent selves.

Śamkara

vijnānātmaparamātmānāv ihocyetātam. kasmāt. ātmānau hi tāv ubhāv api

Śrinivāsa

kim ca'rtam pibantāv'ityatra karmaphalabhoktrtvenaikasmin cetane niścite sati cetanau samānasvabhāvau. samkhyāśravaņe ca samānasvabhāvesv eva loke pratītir dṛśyate. asya gordvitīyo 'nveṣṭavya ity ukte gaur eva dvitīyo'nviṣyate, nāsvaḥ puruṣo vā. tad iha ṛtapānena lingena niścite vijnānāt mani dvitīyānveṣanāyām samānasvabhāvaś cetanah paramātmaiva pratīyate⁵².

dvitīyenāpi cetanenaiva bhāvyam. samkhyāśravaņe sati samkhyāvator hi samānajātiyatvasya loke darśanād ity arthaḥ. tad yathā'asya gor dvitīyo'nveṣṭavyaḥ ity ukte gaur evānviṣyate nāśvo na gardabhaḥ'iti mahābhāṣye sthitam⁵³.

Here they point out that in ordinary life whenever a number is mentioned without specification it stands for the members of the same class. For example, they say, when someone orders asya gor dvitiyo'nveṣṭavya (look out for a second for this bull) people look out for a second bull, not for a horse or for a donkey or for a man. Similarly the mention of the fruition of rewards enables us to determine that the individual soul is meant. Since two intelligent selves" are said to drink (rṭaṁ pibantau) two such selves are required. Therefore we understand immediately that besides the individual self, the highest self is also to be inferred here, for the highest self is the only other intelligent self. Therefore the highest self is to be understood here. Besides, this highest self is of the same nature as the soul.

The pūrvapakṣin's objection against the entering of the omnipresent highest self into the limited space like the cave of the heart is answered by Śamkara with an appeal to scriptural statement to that effect. Śrīnivāsa, significantly seems to elaborate the arguments of Śamkara. According to him there is no possibility of an objection against the entering of the individual soul into the cave because it is atomic in size, but he accepts that an objection can be raised against the entering of the supreme soul, because he is all pervasive. Like Śamkara, he too rejects the objections on the basis of the scriptural support.

Śamkara

....nanūktam auhāhitatvadarsanān paramātmā pratu etavua iti, guhā hitatva daršanād paramātmā pratuetavua iti vadāmah. guhāhitvamtu śrutismrtisv asakrtparamātmana eva drsuate. 'auhāhitam gahvarestham' purānām (Katha 1.2.12) 'yo veda nihitam guhāyam parame (Tait vuoman ātmānam anviccha auhām pravistam ity ādyāsu.

Śrinivāsa

...guhām hrdayalaksanām pravistau ātmānau hi cetanau eva. nanu iivātmano' nutvena praviso uuktah. paramātmano vibhuparimānasya tu guhā pravešo na sam gacchate iti pürvoktadosas tad avastha ii cen na, tad darśanāt, vyāpakasyāpi paramātmanah tasua svānanuājanecchauā' evopanisadi 'angusthmātrah puruso madhue ātmani tisthati, iśāno bhūtabhavuasua (Katha 1.4.12) iti svānanyajanaguhāyām darśanavidhānāt. "guhāhitam gahvarestham" (Katha 1.2.12) yo veda nihitam guhāyām (Tait 2.1) iti tad darśanāc ca. "yā prānena sambhavatuaditir devatāmayī guhām praviśya tisthanti sā bhūtebhir vyajāyate" (Katha 1.4.7) iti jivasya guhā praveša vyapadeśāc ca.

6. Śrinivāsa refutes Śamkara's theory

Our study clearly proves that Śrinivāsa is very much influenced by the bhasya of Samkara. In order to explain the doctrine of Nimbarka better, he makes use of the insights offered by Samkara. Occasionally it carries him off the track, from "the trodden path of Nimbarka⁵⁴ or to make compromises with Samkara55 or to offer an interpretation which on the one hand, differs from the one given by Nimbarka and, on the other hand, agrees with Samkara⁵⁶. The significance of these influences on Śrinivāsa and the resulting change in his outlook is all the more important when we consider that the avowed aim of the work of Śrinivasa is the explanation of the doctrines set forth in the Saurabha. Since the very purpose of the Kaustubha is an exposition of the doctrine contained in the Saurabha. we cannot expect the Kaustubhakāra to refute theories that the Saurabhakāra himself did not pay any attention to mostly due to the Saurabhakāra's own unawareness of them⁵⁷. Therefore we

may assume that the disputes, if any, that the Kaustubhakāra engages in with any of the rival schools are entered into inadvertently by him⁵⁸. That accounts for the paucity of such instances. Below we examine a case, namely, Kaustubha 2.3.31, where Śrīnivāsa seems to dispute with Śaṁkara and fellow Vedāntins. Before entering into the details, it may be pointed out that the following commentary of Nimbārka on BS2.3.31⁵⁹ "sarvagatātmavāde ātmopalabdhyanupaladhyor bandhamokṣayor nityaṁ prasangaḥ syān nityabaddho vā nityamukto vā'tme'tyanyatara niyamo vā syat" is meant to throw out the theory of the sarvagatātmavāda (the theory of the all-pervasiveness of the soul). Later on in BS 2.3.49 "ābhāsā eva ca" Nimbārka identifies the sarva gatātmavādins as Kapila and others⁶⁰.

It is to be pointed out that, although the criticism of the sarvagatātmavāda by Nimbārka is equally valid against any Vedantin who accepts such a theory, the general purpose and context of the Saurabha's criticism shows that it is solely directed against the Sāmkhyas. It is all the more clear from the fact that Nimbarka criticises the Samkhya theory of attributing agentship of the Purusa to buddhi in the next adhikarana (sūtras 32-39) and identifies sarvagatātmavādin as Kapila and his followers in Saurabha 2.3.49. Besides, as was pointed out in the last Chapter. Nimbārka is totally unaware of Śamkara or of any Vedāntin accepting the sarvagatātmavāda. Since Nimbārka's arguments against sarvagatātmavāda are equally valid against the Vedantins accepting such views the latter have to make a defence of the sarvagatātmavāda. Bhāskara does so here. He seems to say that the sarvagatātmavāda is not defective if we accept the distinctions and implications involved in the doctrine of upādhi61.

Bhāskara points out in BS 2.3.32 that the sūtra is not against all types of sarvagatātmatva. Although Bhāskara himself accepts 'atomicity' of the jīva as pointed earlier he does not accept it as the real nature of the jīva⁶², whereby he means that the real nature of the soul is vibhutva. He follows Śaṁkara in his interpretations of these sūtras on the allpervasive nature of the jīva.

The interpretation of BS 2.3.31 by Śrinivasa seems to be

a clarification of the explanation of Nimbarka, Nimbarka has pointed out the flaws in the doctrine of sarvagatātmavāda here. Bhāskara says "yat punar ātma vibhutvavādinām dosakathanārtham sūtram iti vyākhyātam tad avuktam sarvagatatve'pi śariradeśe bhogotpatteh karmanimittatvat tasua, "Śrinivāsa clarifies the point. He says cetanabhūtātmavibhutvavādimate dosakathanārtham sūtram⁶³. Some of the scholars of the Nimbarka school⁶⁴ would like us to see the controversy the other way. According to them, the statement of Bhāskara is an actual verbatim quotation from Śrinivāsa, as well a refutation of the position of Śrinivasa. It must be pointed out here that Bhaskara actually refutes only the interpretation of the sūtra by some one who asserts that the ātmavibhutvavāda is full of flaws. He could be Nimbārka as well⁶⁵. If, on the other hand, Bhāskara were making an actual quotation from Śrinivāsa the text should have been cetanabhūtātmavibhutvavādinām punas dosakathanartham...instead of uat ātmavibhutvavādinām dosakathanārtham. Therefore, it is not an actual verbatim quotation from Śrinivasa.

Therefore the question of who is quoting whom is an open one. If so, then there are two possibilities. Either Bhāskara is quoting Śrīnivāsa or Śrīnivāsa is refuting Bhāskara. The latter seems to be more probable from Śrīnivāsa's own statement "anyathā jñātrṭvādyātmadharmako jñānasvarūpo'ṇu parimāṇaka ātmyety asmad pakṣād anyaprakārake jñānamātrasarvagatātmavāde..." This refutation seems to be against the position of Bhāskara who accepts that the real nature of the jīva is sarvagatatva although in the state of bondage it is aṇu⁶⁶. If Śrīnivāsa is refuting Bhāskara, he is also definitely post-Śaṁkara. Besides, the phrase "cetanabhūtātmavibhutvavāda seems to be alluding to the vedāntins who advocate caitanasvarūpatva of the ātman⁶⁷ which is vibhu⁶⁸.

Therefore this cetanabhūtātmavibhutvavādin or jūānamātrasarvagatātmavādin for Śrīnivāsa seems to be Śamkara. This strengthens our findings that in a number of places in the Kaustubha Śrīnivāsa seems to be aware of the Śāmkarabhāṣya. Besides, he quotes a text, now forming the

seventh verse of *Daśaśloki*, which seems to be directed against Samkara. The text reads:

yathāhuḥ:-

sarvam hi vijnānam ato yathārthakam śrutismrtibhyonikhilasya vasthunaḥ brahmātmakatvād iti vedavinmatam trirūpatā'pi śruti sūtra sādhitā⁶⁹.

The stanza makes it evident that it is meant to uphold the doctrine of the objectivity of all cognitions against the advaita of Samkara⁷⁰. If so, Śrinivāsa is familiar with the doctrines of Śamkara.

7. Śrinivāsa quotes BVP a post-Śamkara Purāņa

We may also adduce an additional proof for the posteriority of Śrinivāsa to Śamkara. Śrinivāsa quotes a passage from BVP while discussing the destruction of all the previous and the consequent sins on the part of the knower in Kaustubha 4.1.13. Śrinivāsa raises an objection there based on an actual quotation from BVP 2.26.70,71 that the consequence of a work done must necessarily be experienced and therefore the destruction of results of work is not possible. Such an objection is thrown out on the basis of Chand 4.4.13, 5.24.3 and Mund 2.2.8 and it is asserted that the non-clinging and destruction of subsequent and prior sins for a knower are not meaningful if they pertain to the destruction of only those works, whose consequences are already undergone, since such a destruction holds equally good in the case of a nonknower as well⁷². Therefore Śrinivāsa explains BVP 2.26.70 as referring to the case of a non-knower and to work which have begun to produce consequences⁷³.

What is significant here is the fact that the entire *Kaustubha* 4.1.13 is built on the objection based on *BVP* 2.26.70 and therefore this *BVP* passage cannot be thrown away as an interpolation at all.

Since \hat{Srin} ivāsa relies on BVP passage and quotes it twice, he cannot be earlier than BVP. The actual date of BVP is in fact undeterminable, as H.H. Wilson⁷⁴ admits that some legends in BVP might be relatively of ancient origin, the Purāna as a whole might have originated about the time of

Vallabhācārya and the Goswāmins of Gokula⁷⁵. R.C. **Hazra** feels that *BVP* was most probably first composed in the eighth century A.D. with various revisions and additions down to the sixteenth century⁷⁶. C.M. **Brown** in his extensive study of *BVP*⁷⁷, on the basis of the study so far made on *BVP* and with the help of the particular references to *BVP* in other Purāṇas like *Mat P.* 53.55-55, 53.67-68, *Pad.P* 6.263. 81-85, *Nad.P.* 1.101.1-3 and *Nar PR* 2.7.30-31, has amply demonstrated that the extant *BVP* for most part is a very different work from the *original* referred to among the 18 *Mahāpurāṇas*, for example, in *VIP*. 3.6.19-21 and other earliest Purānic lists. He points out there that the original *BVP* was a product of the Brahmā cult, but has undergone changes at the hands of the Kṛṣṇaite Vaiṣṇavas and the Saiva Sect⁷⁸.

We may sum up the findings of the scholars on BVP. The BVP is mentioned among the 18 Mahāpurānas in VIP. 3.6. 19-21. C.M. Brown points out that this mention in VIP must be older than the eleventh century A.D., and Alberuni has taken it down from VIP79. It may be incidentally mentioned that the number 18 seemed to be sacred and the Purānas were considered to be 18 at least from the beginning of the seventh century A.D.80, but that does not mean that there was any unanimity of names in the various lists. Hazra considers that the earliest version of BVP was first composed in the eighth century A.D., although the extant BVP with its present contents was not known to writers even up to the sixteenth century81. C.M. Brown after examining all the available evidences comes to similar conclusions82. Significantly, no Puranic scholar83 has placed the earliest possible version of BVP to an earlier date than that of Samkara. All of them are unanimous that BVP is a post-Samkara work.

As we have seen above, Śrinivāsa bases his arguments in Kaustubha 4.1.13 on the actual text of BVP 2.26.70 "avaśyam eva bhoktavyam kṛṭam karma-subhāsubham" which shows he is familiar with the BVP⁸⁴. Therefore he could have existed only after the 8th century A.D., which is considered to be the earliest date of the earliest form of BVP. If Śrinivāsa lived after the earliest form of BVP, had been composed, he must have been a post-Śamkara Bhāṣyakāra. It may be pointed out

that BVP mentions Śamkara at least thrice. Since the earliest form of BVP is later than Śamkara, it does not matter at what stage in the development of BVP these verses about Śamkara found their place in the BVP. These verses are:

- kārāgare ca samsāre durvaham nigadam param acchedyam jñānakhadgais ca mahadbhiḥ samkarādibhiḥ⁸⁵
- yam anirvacaniiyam ca yogindrah samkaro vadet svayam vidhātā pravadet kāranāmām ca kāranam⁸⁶
- nyāyo nirvacanīyain ca yain matain śainkaro vadet nityam vaiśeṣikāśca' dyain tain vadanti vicakṣaṇaḥ⁸⁷

The obvious conclusion is that Śrīnivāsa must be a post-Śamkara *Bhāṣyakāra*, because the earliest form of *BVP* cannot be dated to a period earlier than that of Śamkara. Besides, the extant *BVP* itself has references to Śamkara. Therefore Śrīnivāsa who builds up his *bhāṣya* on *BS* 4.1.13 on the basis of *BVP* text cannot be earlier than Śamkara.

Conclusion

Our study of Śrinivāsa is made on the basis of his undisputed work called Vedanta-Kaustubha. It is not an independent work because the primary aim of its author is to explain the doctrine of Bhedabhedavada already expounded by Nimbārka, whom Śrinivāsa considers his guru. The Vedantapārijāta Saurabh of Nimbārka is devoid of any controversies with the fellow Vedantins. Therefore the Kaustubha, meant to explain the doctrine of the Saurabha ipso facto need not engage in controversies with the fellow Vedāntins. Such disputes and controversies with the fellow Vedāntins could be expected in a polemic treatise of the school like Parapaksagirivajra of Mādhvamukunda⁸⁸ or in an independent bhāsya on the Brahmasūtra like the siddhānta-jāhnavi of Devācārva. Therefore the mere absence of any major dispute with Samkara in the Kaustubha in itself does not mean that the Kaustubhakāra is pre-Samkara. Yet it must be pointed out that there are some passages in the Kaustubha that appear to be the refutation of certain Samkarite doctrines, which the Kaustubhakara has, so to say, "accidentally" entered into. We have discussed some of these instances.

Srinivasa seems to be familiar with the commentary of Samkara, Much of his bhāsya appears to be a summary of the bhasya of Samkara wherever there is no doctrinal conflict between Nimbarka and Samkara. As we have pointed out, he accepts the insights Samkara offers on many of the sitras of BS. In certain cases, where there is a difference of outlook in the interpretations of Samkara and Nimbarka. Srinivasa accepts both the interpretations as alternatives. In a few such instances he gives priority to the line of interpretation offered by Samkara and gives only a secondary place to the one offered by Nimbarka. Nay, on BS 3.4.43 on the fate of the fallen naisthikabrahmacarins he takes a lenient stand along with Samkara, contrary to Nimbarka's out-right condemnation of them by debarring them from the right to Brahmavidyā. Added to all these, is verse seven of the present day Daśaśloki, quoted by Śrinivasa in Kaustubha 1.1.1.1 containing a condemnation of some of the Samkarite doctrine which proves the familiarity of Śrinivasa with the philosophy of Samkara.

A further support for the post-Śamkara nature of the Kaustubha comes from the fact that the Kaustubhakāra quotes BVP 2.26.70. No modern scholar has assigned even the earliest and the most original form of BVP to pre-Śamkara times. Irrespective of the fact whether the stanzas, referring to Śamkara belong to the original form of BVP or not, BVP is a post-Śamkara Purāṇa. The obvious conclusion is that Śrinivāsa who offers his arguments in BS 4.1.13 on the basis of BVP 2.26.70 must be a post-Śamkara-bhāsyakāra.

Further, the assumption that the Kaustubha 2.1.13 is the pūrvapakṣa in Śāṁkarabhāsya 2.1.14 is untenable. It is more likely that Śrīnivāsa who seems to be well aware of the bhāṣya of Śaṁkara and makes use of the insights and refinements brought in by Śaṁkara elsewhere, does the same here. Our examination of the said passage (Kaustubha 2.1.13) above has shown that there is nothing compelling us to accept that Śaṁkara is quoting from Śrīnivāsa. It could be on the contrary, another example where Śrīnivāsa makes use of the refinements and insights that Śaṁkara offers on the bhedābhedavāda both in the Braḥmasūtrabhāṣya 2.1.14 as well as Bṛhadāraṇyakabhāṣya 5.11. It is quite possible,

because, as we have pointed out earlier, Śrīnivāsa in his mission of explaining the *Saurabha* goes to the extend of borrowing much from others, which shows that he is prepared to accept the refinements and insights that Śamkara offered on the *Brahmasūtras*, especially on the *bhedābhedavāda*. As we know the *bhedābheda* doctrine is a pre-Śamkara doctrine, as is evident from the references examined above.

Finally, the claim⁸⁹ that Śrīnivāsa makes in the Kaustubha that he is a disciple of Nimbarka and that he is writing the Kaustubha at the command of his guru, need not mean that he is the immediate disciple of Nimbarka as alleged by the AC and the guruparamparās90. In fact, we need not give it any more importance than the claim of Nimbarka that he is the disciple of Narada⁹¹. It means only that he belongs to the tradition of bhedabheda school of Vedanta propounded by Nimbarka⁹². Therefore neither the accounts of AC nor the various guruparamparas, written down centuries later, can give any definite solution to the historical and chronological problems. All that we can deduce with certitude is that the Kaustubha of Śrinivasa is influenced to a great extend by the bhāsya of Samkara on the Brahmasūtras, even though there is no major controversy in the Kaustubha against the Samkarite doctrines

Chapter 6

THE PROBABLE DATE OF NIMBĀRKA

Introduction

Our discussion in chapter four has led us to conclude that Nimbārka, the author of *Vedāntapārijāta Saurabha*, was a pre-Śaṁkara *vṛṭṭikāra*. But are we able to place Nimbārka to a definite period in pre-Śaṁkara days? Does the *Saurabha* again help us to arrive at any definite conclusion about the probable date of Nimbārka? Let us again go back to the *Saurabha*. There, Nimbārka's treatment of the Sāṁkhya and the Śākta schools catch our special attention.

1. Nimbārka's criticism of Sāmkhya

According to Nimbārka the Sāṁkhya doctrine is propounded by Kapila¹. These Sāṁkhyas hold 25 principles beginning with Pradhāna². Commenting on BS 1.4.11 "na saṁkhyopasaṁgrahādapinānābhāvādatirekācca" Nimbārka says "na ca yasmin pañcajanā ākāśāca pratisthitaḥ (Bṛḥ 4.4.17, Śat Br. 14.7.2.19) iti saṁkhyopasaṁgrahād api pradhānādṁnām pañcaviṁśatipadārthānāṁ śrutimūlakatvam asti..." Here he points out that Sāṁkhyas cannot claim that the 25 principles beginning with pradhāna (Pradhānādi) are based on Śruti. Here it is not clear whether the Puruṣa, who is presented as above the avyakta³ is included in this list of 25 principles. Since he says that "the 25 principles beginning

with pradhāna," it means that the first among them is pradhāna and the other 24 principles follow the pradhāna, because it is the ādi of them (pradhānādinām pañcavimśatipadārthānām). It seems that the 24 principles are the evolutes of the pradhāna and that the Puruṣa is not included in this list of 25. Therefore it raises the question whether Nimbārka is aware of the Sāmkhyas who accepted 26 principles. If Puruṣa, as held by the Sāmkhyas is above the pradhanādinām pañcavimśati padārthāni, then Nimbārka seems to be aware of the Sāmkhyas holding more than 25 principles. Nimbārka makes a clear distinction4 between the pradhāna which the Sāmkhyas call avyakta as noted in Saurabha, 1.4.1 and the Puruṣa, which Nimbārka occasionally calls the jūva5 or the ātman6.

Nimbārka does not elaborate which the 25 principles of the Sāmkhva are. But while speaking of the origin of various material elements and categories from Brahman he mentions the following. (1) ether⁷, (2) air⁸, (3) fire⁹, (4) water¹⁰, and (5) earth11. He does not accept any fixed order of creation. It seems that he considers that there are two types of material elements when he speaks of the sūksmabhūtas (subtle elements)12 and the mahābhūtas13 (the great elements). Elsewhere he considers the sthula state as a transformation of the sūksma state¹⁴. Thus he makes a clear distinction between them. Therefore we may consider that both the categories of sūksma and mahābhūtas are known to him. Both the sūksma and sthūla bhūtas known to Nimbārka may constitute 10 of the 25 principles of the Sāmkhya. According to the Saurabhakāra other material elements like the vital breath, the mind, the sense organs, the avyakta, the mahat, and the ahamkāra 15 take their origin from Brahman 16. Of these the sense organs are eleven including the mind 17, while the prāna (the vital breath) is not a mere air, nor a function of the senses 18. It is a special instrument of the jiva in holding up the body through its fivefold modes like apana 19. Thus the 25 principles beginning with pradhana are pradhana or avyakta. (1) mahat (2) ahamkara (3) the mind and the 10 senses (4-14) the sūksmabhūtas (15-19) the mahābhūtas (20-24) the prāna. (25). Over and above these 25 principles given above. Nimbārka also accepts the jīvātman, which according to him, does not originate 20. It is the very amsa of

Brahman²¹. Besides the jīva or Puruṣa as noted above, Nimbārka has on different occasions, explained 25 principles which are material in nature. Nimbārka is prepared to accept the theory of pradhāna provided that the Pradhāna is dependent on Brahman. He calls such a Pradhāna theaupaniṣadika pradhāna²². According to him the pradhāna of the Sāṁkhyas and its evolutes originate from Brahman or rather they are Brahmātmikā (having Brahman as their inner soul), meaning that they share in the ontological essence of Brahman²³. Here he also points out that Brahman transcends them all. The origin of these elements in no way brings in any mutations in Brahman. Brahman transcends all the material creation although He is very much their essence and existence because everything is brahmātmaka.

The fundamental reason why Nimbārka rejects the Sāṁkhya doctrine is that it is not based on the śruti²⁴. Terms like avyakta²⁵, mahat²⁶ etc. mentioned in 'śruti' do not denote the Sāṁkhya categories. They are found to be applied to other realities in the śruti²⁷. The scriptural declaration of the ultimate cause as asat, avyakta etc. is the Brahman and not the acetanapradhāna of the Sāṁkhyas²⁷. The acetanapradhāna cannot be denoted by terms like the Sat²⁷, imperishable³⁷, the source of being, the support of heaven and the earth³⁷, because no body can obtain liberation by relying on a unconscious principle since liberation is declared to be the attainment of the nature of the principle (tad bhāvāpatti) on which one has relied for liberation³². Liberation according to Nimbārka is the attainment of Brahmabhāva or paramaṁ sāmyam³³ with Brahman³⁴.

Nimbārka also points out that the Sāmkhya doctrines contradict not only the *śruti* texts but also the other *smṛtis*. While Sāmkhya advocates an *acetanakāraṇa*, the other *smṛtis* in unison support the *śruti* doctrine of the *cetanakāraṇa* for the world³⁵.

The third reason for the rejection of the Sāṁkhya doctrine is that it contains inner contradictions³⁶, especially concerning its theory of causality. Therefore he attacks, from all fronts, the causality of the *acetanapradhāna*. First of all the scripture declares the cause of the world as a *cetana* prin-

ciple³⁷. Therefore the Sāmkhuapradhāna is not found in the scripture at all³⁸. Secondly the acetanapradhāna is not acquainted with the varied arrangements involved in creating this universe³⁹. Thirdly, no spontaneous activity is possible on the part of an acetana principle⁴⁰, more specially, because there is no other accessory principle acceptable to the Sāmkhva⁴¹. He points out that no grass eaten by a bull turns into milk⁴². If the milk turns itself into curd, it is due to its being brahmātma. The milk has Brahman as its inner controller. Fourthly, the Samkhya cannot explain satisfactorily how the state of equilibrium (samuavastha) of the acetanapradhāna is disturbed and how the gunas enter into a relation of angangibhava⁴³. The Samkhya Purusa is devoid of any form of activity. It is unable to do anything. Therefore the similes of the lame leading the blind or the magnet attracting the iron are not suitable. If the Samkhya accepts an active Purusatheir pradhāna cannot be the primary cause of the world⁴⁴. Fifthly, Nimbarka points out that there cannot be any purpose of set goals for an acetana principle⁴⁵.

As pointed out earlier, Nimbārka is prepared to accept a theory of *pradhāna if it* is presented as depending on the *Paramakāraṇa* bėcause such a theory is meaningful⁴⁶. Under the influence of the Supreme prime Mover, evolution from the primary *prakṛti* is possible like the transformation of milk into curd under the influence of Brahman the inner inciter⁴⁷. All that Nimbārka is opposed to is the doctrine of an *acetanapradhāna*, not superintended and directed by an intelligent principle⁴⁸. But if there is such an intelligent principle superintending the *pradhāna*, then the *pradhāna* can no more be the primary cause of the world⁴⁹.

His criticism of the Pāśupata doctrine⁵⁰ as well as the Śāktavāda⁵¹ will make it clear that Nimbārka is not prepared to accept any theory that makes a distinction between the upādānakāraṇa and the nimittakāraṇa⁵².

Nimbārka is also aware that the Sāmkhyas accept — the doctrine of the all-pervasiveness of the jīva (Puruṣa)⁵³. They also held the doctrine of the plurality of the all-pervasive jīvas⁵⁴. According to them even the senses of the jīvas are also all-pervasive⁵⁵. It was pointed out in Chapter Four, that Nimbārka's criticism of the all-pervasiveness of the soul is

against the Samkhvas. Under Sūtras 2.3.49 Nimbarka points out the untenability of the doctrine of the all-pervasive soul as taught by Kapila. According to him the sūtra 2.3.50 shows that the vyatikara (mixing of karmas) cannot be avoided even if one were to take recourse to the adrsta because there is restriction (aniyama) with regard to the adrsta. Now, under sūtra 2.3.51, the Saurabhakāra says "aham idam karisye idam neti Samkalpādisvapy evam aniyamah". Thus Nimbārka seems to understand that the faculty of making a decision belongs to the jiva (Purusa). But in the classical Samkhva as presented by Isvarakrsna, the Purusa, as pointed out by Larson, "is individual, but not personal. The personal ego or self consciousness is included in the notion of buddhi, ahamkara and manas. Thus, what is commonly considered to be self-consciousness or ego is understood in the classical Sāmkhva to be other than the Purusa, although Purusa's presence is required for these dimensions of human experience to appear. The Purusa in itself, then, is apart from all knowledge, emotion or self-awareness. It is likewise apart from all action and willing"56.

2. The gradual development of the Sāmkhya

It makes us examine whether the criticism of the Samkhya system by Nimbarka warrants any awareness of the latest systematization of the Sāmkhva thought by Iśwarakrsna⁵⁷. Does the above criticism of the Sāmkhya warrant any extra knowledge of a developed Sāmkhya on the part of Nimbārka than that of the Sūtrakāra⁵⁸? Therefore it is within our interest to draw in the findings of the scholars on the origin and development of the Sāmkhya thought. Sāmkhya has a long history of development stretching out at least from the early Vedic period⁵⁹, E.H. **Johnston**⁶⁰ points out on the basis of certain Chinese references that there were eighteen Sāmkhya schools in ancient times. Scholars have attempted to see various stages and phases in the development of Sāmkhya thought, and on the basis of their findings they have attempted to make certain classification. Johnston 61 sees five successive phases in the development of Sāmkhya. Erich Frauwallner⁶² is of the opinion that the Samkhya thought passed through four distinct stages of development. Larson 63 also classifies these stages as four.

Basing himself on the findings of the early scholars, Larson points out that the early formulative period of Sāmkhya is found in the Vedas and the oldest Upanisads. According to him this period extends from eighth or ninth century B.C. down through the period of Jainism and the early Buddhism, Larson calls the second phase the period of the proto-Sāmkhya speculations. He considers that the Sāmkhva found in the Katha, the Śvetāśvatara and the Maitri Upanisads belongs to this period. Besides, the Caraka Samhitā, Pañcaśikhavākya of the Mbh. (Cr.Ed.XII, 211-212), Buddhacarita of Asv.aghosa, Moksadharma and the Bhagavadaitā are also placed in this period, which stretches from fourth century B.C. to first century A.D. The third phase, according to Larson begins in the first century A.D. and ends by the tenth or the eleventh century A.D. According to Larson⁶⁴ the Sāmkhya system of philosophy was a dominant one in the first century A.D. which seems to be also the period of the composition of Brahmasūtras.

Larson calls the period extending from the first to the tenth century A.D. as the classical period. The Sāmkhya thought of this period is contained in the Sastitantra and in the teaching of the Sāmkhya ācāryas like Pañcasikha, Varsaganya etc. We have only certain references to them in the later works on Samkhva. According to Larson this classical period comes to its culmination with the Sāmkhuakārikās of Īśwarakrsna. Larson places the related commentaries of the Sārikhuakārikās and the Yogasūtras to this period. The Samkhva doctrine which was the pradhānamalla for Samkarācārya seems to have suffered heavily in post-Sāmkara days, which also saw a decline of the Sāmkhya renaisance brought about by Vijñānabhiksu and others in the 16th century. Larson65 places the Tattvasamāsasūtra also to this period. As will be pointed out later, many other scholars are of the opinion that Tattvasamāsa belonged to a period earlier than that of the Kārikās of Isvarakrsna66.

3. Şaştitantra and pre-Kārikā Sāmkhya

If we go through the Saurabha carefully we notice that the Saurabhakāra refers to the Sāmkhyas mostly as the

Tāntrikas. The term tantra generally means doctrine⁶⁷. In various bhāṣyas we come across such usages as "sāmkhyatantra", "yogatantra", "tantrāntara", "samānatantra", etc. Here the term, in a general way, denotes a system or a doctrine. Kumārila Bhaṭṭa uses the term in this general sense when he names his Vārttika as Tantravārttikam. Besides this general sense, the word tantra is also used in a specific sense to denote the Sects practising some forms of esoteric cult and rituals such as the Vāmācārya-śaivas or Kulācāraśāktas or the Bauddhatāntrikas, etc⁶⁸. But the Saurabhakāra reserves the term Tāntrikas exclusively for the Sāmkhyas. This peculiar use of the term Tāntrikas is found in the Saurabha 1.4.4, 1.4.11, 1.4.16 etc.

On BS 1.4.4.⁶⁹ Nimbārka points out that the world *avyakta* does not denote the Pradhāna of the *Tāntrikas*. From *Saurabha* 1.4.11 it is all the more clear that the *Tāntrikas* for Nimbārka are the Sāmkhya. He says:

"Even on account of the collection of number" in the text "In whom the five-five people and the ether are based" (*Bṛḥ* 4.4.17 Śat. *Br.* 14.7.2.19) it is not to be said that the twenty-five principles, beginning with *pradhāna*, are based on scripture, so what disputes can there be regarding the knowability of the *pradhāna* from scripture? Why? "On account of diversity" i.e. because the object which are based on Brahman, established in scripture and denoted by the term "in whom" are different from the objects established in the *Tantra* since the former are found to have Brahman for their soul: "and on account of the excess" of Brahman, the support and like-wise of the ether.

He also refutes the view that the *Puruṣa* of the *Tāntrikas* is based on scriptures. In *Saurabha* 1.4.16 he says:

"It is not to be supposed that in the text "he verily, O Bālāki, who is the maker of these persons (Puruṣāṇām), this is the work" (Kauṣ 3.9), the object to be known is the Puruṣa mentioned in the Tantra and the enjoyer of the fruitṣ of merits and demerits. None but the Supreme soul is here indicated as "the object to be known", Why? Because Brahman is the topic, as known from the texts "Let me declare Brahman to you" (Kauṣ 4.1) because the word "work" (Karma) meaning "something that is done (kriyate yat tat karma)

denotes the world, which is an effect, because by the pronoun *this* "the world", established by the evidences of perception and the rest, is suggested, and, lastly, because the *Puruṣa* mentioned in the *Tantra* is not the topic here".

It is more probable that Nimbarka is referring to the Sastitantra when he calls the Sāmkhva system as the tantra and the followers of Samkhva as the Tantrikas. Isvarakrsna (Cir. 500 A.D.) claims that the Kārikās which he composed is the abridged form of the huge literature of the Sastitantra⁷⁰. It is impossible to determine the exact content of the original Sastitantra or its author. The various studies made by scholars have led them to conclude that the Sastitantra represented an old Sāmkhua tradition, the content of which was summarized by Iśwarakrsna⁷¹. The question whether the Sastitantra is the proper name of the system or the name of a huge literature is hard to settle 72. Chakravarti 73 thinks that the Sastitantra is the first systematic treatise on Sāmkhva. Ram Suresh Panday⁷⁴ identifies this ancient systematic Sastitantra treatise as the Tattvasamasa. He points out that many great scholars like Hiriyanna, Radhakrishnan, Keith and Dasgupta mistook the Tattvasamāsa as a late work solely on the basis of the fact that the commentaries on the Tattvasamāsa are of late origin. According to him the gap between Tattvasamāsa and its extant commentaries is more than one thousand years. G.J. Larson 75 also concedes that the Sāmkhya ideas contained in Tattvasamāsa may go back to an earlier stage.

It seems, however, more probable that Ṣaṣṭitantra may not be a single work. The Kārikās of Īśvarakṛṣṇa need not be a mere summary of a single work called Ṣaṣṭitantra, but an attempt at systematizing the Sāṁkhya speculations, treatises and discourses upto his days. There seems to have existed more than one work connected with Ṣaṣṭitantra because on the one hand Vācaspati Miśra considers Varṣaganya as the author of the Ṣaṣṭitantra, while the unknown author of the Jayamangalā considers Pañcaśikha as its author. Besides all these, as Keith points out, Guṇaratna in his Tarkarahasya dīpikā mentions another work called Ṣaṣṭitantradhāra. Therefore he is of the opinion that the pre-Kārikā Sāṁkhya is called Ṣaṣṭitantra 19. He bases his

opinion on the fact that the Ṣaṣṭitantra is mentioned along with the system of Kapila as Kāvilam and Ṣaṭṭhitantam in the Jaina work called Anuyogadvāra sūtra by Guṇaratna⁸⁰. He also points out that the Ṣaṣṭitantra is mentioned as Kavila and the Sāmkhyayogī in the Aupapātikasūtra. Therefore it would not be proper to hold that what does not tally with the Kārikās of Īśvarakṛṣṇa is not Samkhya at all⁸¹.

4. Nimbārka seems to be familiar with pre-Kārikā Sāmkhya

The identification of the Sāmkhya as the Tantra by Nimbarka may point out that he is very familiar with the Sastitantra tradition of the pre-Kārikā days. The mere fact that Nimbārka calls the Sāmkhyas the Tāntrikas does not make him a pre-Kārikā commentator of the BS because even Bhāskara, a post-Śāmkara commentator of the BS does the same⁸². But as we have noticed above the criticism of Sāmkhya by Nimbārka in no way demands any more awareness of the Sāmkhya philosophy than the awareness the Sūtrakāra himself had of this system. First of all, Nimbārka does not refer to any Kārikās of Isvarakrsna. Secondly, he is not very familiar with the special terminologies of the Kārikā such as tanmātras for what he calls sūksmabhūtas. For Īśvarakrsna the sūksma elements include mahat, ahamkāra etc83, while for Nimbarka as we have pointed above, the sūksmabhūtas are the causal state of the sthūlabhūtas. According to him the sthula state is a transformation of the sūksma state⁸⁴. That would mean that Nimbārka employs the term sūksmabhūta to denote what the classical Sāmkhya of Iśvarakrsna calls tanmātras. Nimbārka upholds85 the trivrtkarana (tripartition) the process of evolution which is a more ancient theory of creation86 than that of the Kārikās. His idea of the sūksma śarīra which finally merges in Brahman⁸⁷ seems to be less of a complicated composition⁸⁸ than that of the one proposed by Iśwarakrsna89. Nimbārka's awareness of the sarvagatātmavāda as a doctrine propounded by Kapila⁹⁰ does not seem to be obtained from the Kārikās of Iśvarakrsna. Similarly, the doctrine of the parasparāngāngibhāva of the gunas as the source of the evolutionary process⁹¹ is also not in terms of the Kārikā terminologies. Nimbārka is a man of a few words. Therefore these few references he makes to the Sāmkhya have to be taken into consideration. They point out that he is not indebted to the *Kārikās* for his awareness of the doctrines of Kapila.

Nimbārka's awareness of an atheistic Sāmkhya92 does not demand that he must be aware of the Kārikās of Īśvarakrsna because some of the pre-Kārikā works, like the Buddhacarita and Tattvasamāsa contain Sāmkhva of an atheistic nature. A theistic version of the pre-Kārikā classical Sāmkhya is found in the Ahirbudhnya Samhitā⁹³ which also describes the Sāmkhya as the Tantra94. While the Sāmkhya of Ahirbudhnya Samhitā is influenced by the Pañcarātras 95, the Buddhacarita of Aśvaghosa is very must influenced by the Buddhist way of thinking⁹⁶. The existence of an atheistic Sāmkhya in pre-Kārikā days can be proved from the very claim of Iśvarakrsna that his Kārikās are the systematized summary of the Sastitantra because the Kārikās themselves are atheistic in nature. Besides, the Sastitantra account of the Rājavārttika, quoted by Vācaspati Misra on Kārikā 63 is also atheistic in outlook.

Thus, there is nothing to prevent us from placing the *Saurabhakāra* in a pre-Īśvarakṛṣṇa period. Yet, we have not yet got sufficient and compelling reasons to assign him to a definite period. Our above study has shown only that it is quite probable that Nimbārka belonged to a pre-Īśvarakṛṣṇa period. Such a view is also supported by Nimbārka's criticism of the *Śāktavāda* under *BS* 2.2.42-45.

5. The Śāktavāda as known to Nimbārka

As we have seen in Chapter One, Śāmkara and Rāmānuja discuss the pros and cons of the vyūhavāda of the Pañcarātra school under BS 2.2.42-45, while Nimbārka and Madhva make use of these sūtras to refute the Śāktavāda. It is to be noted here that BS 2.2.42-45, themselves do not name the doctrine or the school that the Sūtrakāra has in mind. The sūtras themselves are vague. Since these sūtras come within a pāda that is dealing with the doctrines unacceptable to the Sūtrakara, Nimbārka, Śamkara and Madhva are justified in considering them as referring to a pūrvapakṣa doctrine. But

on the other hand, as these *sūtras* come at the end of the *pāda* that has been rejecting many other schools and doctrines that are named in the *sūtras* themselves, Rāmānuja may be justified in considering these last *sūtras* as referring to the *siddhānta*, unnamed in the *sūtras*⁹⁷. At any rate, these *sūtras* in themselves do not show that the doctrine at stake is the doctrine of the *vyūhavāda* of the Paūcarātras or the *śāktavāda*⁹⁸.

Here it may be pointed out that there must be some compelling reason for a commentator to consider this type of "uncommitted sūtras" as referring to a particular school or doctrine, either as accepted or rejected. One of the compelling reasons seems to be the prevalence of certain theories and schools of thought in his contemporary times. Perhaps the popularity of the Pañcarātra school in his surroundings prompted Samkara to make use of these sūtras to refute the Pañcarātra system⁹⁹. Since Samkara has already rejected the Pañcarātra doctrine of the vyūhavāda, the option for the later vyūhavādins is already determined. Therefore they were forced to some extent to make use of these sūtras to defend vuūhavāda¹⁰⁰. But as seen in Chapter Four above. Nimbārka is a pre-Samkara vedāntin¹⁰¹. If he were a post-Samkara Pañcarātrin, we would naturally expect him to defend the Pancaratra tenets against the onslaughts of Śamkara. In post-Śamkara days the vyūhavāda had become one of the important tenets of Vaisnavism and the distinction between Pañcarātra and Bhāgavata type of Vaisnavism seems to have evaporated as they got completely merged 102 by then. Therefore it would have been a moral obligation on the part of a post-Samkara Vaisnavite bhāsyakāra to defend the Pañcarātras.

6. Nimbārka and Madhva on the Śāktamata

The fact that Nimbārka and Madhva find it necessary to refute Śāktism under these sūtras show that the doctrine was prevalent in their particular surroundings. Every bhāṣyakāra is a creature of his time and place. His pūrvapakṣins normally include his contemporaries holding contrary doctrines. It is well known that the Śāktas worship an exclusively female principle as the Supreme deity, who is the personification of the primordial energy and thus is the

source of all "Spiritual" and material evolution ¹⁰³. Nimbārka rejects the *śaktivāda* on the ground that the origin of the world from *Śakti* without the *Puruṣa* is impossible ¹⁰⁴ and, therefore, the *Śākta* doctrine that maintains *Śakti* as the sole cause of the world is not acceptable ¹⁰⁵. Besides, there can be no connection between the *Puruṣa* and *Śakti* precisely because prior to such a creation, on the part of the *Puruṣa* there is no sense organ, the means of contact — which is one of the products of the creative process ¹⁰⁶. If on the contrary, *Śakti* is endowed with the natural attributes like knowledge etc, this cannot be but the Brahman of the Vedāntins ¹⁰⁷. The sacred texts, both the *śruti* and the *smṛti* declare the ultimate Principle endowed with all the attributes to be the Brahman, which is the Vedānta position. Therefore Nimbārka rejects the *Śākta* doctrine as unauthoritative ¹⁰⁸.

As already pointed out. Madhya too takes these sūtras as rejecting the Saktavada. An examination of the bhasuas of Madhya and Nimbārka reveals that Madhya is well aware of the later developments of the Sakta school, which Nimbarka is unaware of. As pointed out by B.N.K. Sharma 109 Madhva is aware of the Mahavama, Madhuavama and Anuvama shades of the Sakta school. These schools are also known as the Śākta, Śāmbhava and Ānava schools 110. Among these, the Mahavamas consider Sakti to be all in all, needing no partnership with anybody for the creation. The other two schools advocate an alliance of Sakti with Siva to tide over the objections raised by the earlier critics of the school¹¹¹. They, therefore, accept to a greater extent the partnership of Siva in the creative act¹¹². Madhya refutes the Mahāvāma school under BS 2.2.42113, the Madhyavama under BS 2.2.43114 and the Anuvama under BS 2.2.44115. Finally he also points out the Sakta doctrines are in conflict with the teachings of the śruti and the smrti116.

Nimbārka's commentary on the above sūtras, as we have seen above, are only a paraphrasing of the sūtras. He does not seem to be aware of any greater development of the Śāktavāda than that of the Śūtrakāra himself, had he been intending the Śāktavāda here under the sūtras 2.2.42-45. Perhaps, the doctrines of the Śāmbhava and the Āṇava Śāktas, advocating an alliance of Śākti and Śiva for the creative

process might be a response to the criticism of Nimbarka in Saurabha 2.2.42. "Since the origin of the world from Sakti without the Puruṣa is impossible, the doctrine too, which maintains it as the cause is not valid" and in Saurabha 2.2.43 "If it be said there is connection (between Śākti and the Puruṣa) — (we reply) No "sense organ" (karaṇa) is possible on the part of Puruṣa at that time". These arguments and objections raised by Nimbārka against the Śāktavāda resemble his arguments against the acetanapradhāna of the Sāmkhyas elsewhere 117. These arguments also seem to be against an earlier form of the Śaktavāda, because these lack sophistication.

7. Madhva is aware of the later historical developments of Śāktism

The bhasua of Madhya, on the contrary, seems to be aware of the later historical developments and ramifications of the doctrine of creation in the Śākta schools. A comparative study of the bhāsua of Madhya with the prtti of Nimbarka on the above sūtras will make it clear that the similarities in their arguments are due to the attempt made by Madhva to make explicit what Nimbarka says under BS 2.2.42 namely "purusamantarena śakteh sakā sa ji agad utpattu asambhavān na tat kāranavādo'pi sādhuh is made explicit with a proper bv Madhya when he savs purusānanugrhitastribhya utpattir drsyate. It is quite evident that Madhya is explaining the argument of Nimbarka.

Under BS 2.2.43¹¹⁸ Madhva seems to refute the views of Madhyavāmaśāktas, for, Jayatīrtha explains the statement of Madhva "yadi puruso'ngīkriyate tasyāpi karaṇābhāvādanupapattiḥ" to that effect. The Madhyavāmaśāktas propose Sadāśiva as an adjunct to Śakti in the activity of creation. Since Śiva according to them is without a body and the sense organs and is having only a subordinate role, he cannot have the necessary knowledge to help Śakti. Śakti by herself is unable to create anything, not even a body for Śiva in order that he may be able to help her. In fact, if she had the power of creating a body for Śiva, she could even carry out the entire process of creation without any help from Śiva.

Similarly, the statement of Madhva on BS 2.2.44 namely yadi vijñānādikaraṇam tasyāngīkriyate tadā tata eva sṛṣṭyādhy upapatter īśvaravādāntarbhāvah is taken by Jayatīrtha¹¹¹¹ as directed against the Anuvāma school of the Śāktas who hold that Śiva has a body, sense organs, and supreme knowledge and powers, so that he is in a position to help Śakti. It is pointed out by him that if Śiva has all these powers, he could be considered as the Supreme creator like the Śiva accepted by the Pāśupata school rather than as mere helpmate of Śakti. According to Jayatīrtha it would be unphilosophical to claim two ultimate Principles of equal importance, one Śakti and the other Śiva.

In Chapter Four we have seen that Nimbārka is a pre-Samkara vṛṭṭikara. The above comparative evaluation of the criticism of the Śākta school by Nimbārka and Madhva shows that Madhva and later on Jayatīṛṭtha are expanding the criticism of Nimbārka against the Śāktas. Nimbārka is more archaic. Under sūṭra 2.2.42 Madhva seems to make explicit what Nimbārka implicitly seems to touch 120. Therefore, it can be safely concluded that Nimbārka is the first known commentator to treat Śāktismin this adhikaraṇa 121. The fact that Nimbārka and Madhva considered it necessary to refute the Śāktamata shows that the Śāktavādawas very influencial in their respective surroundings 122.

8. Śāktism had a pre-historical origin

It is beyond the scope of our work to undertake a detailed survey of the origin and the development of the $S\tilde{a}ktamata$. We would like to draw some conclusions on the basis of the findings of scholars who have gone into the details of the $S\tilde{a}ktav\tilde{a}da^{123}$. They are of the opinion that India has possessed a long tradition of the Mother worship — a forerunner of later $S\tilde{a}ktism$ from the time of the Harappan civilization 124 as is evident from the cult objects excavated at Mohenjodaro and Harappa 125 . According to **Bhattacharya** the widespread cult of $S\tilde{a}kti$ is a natural evolution of the pre-historic mother-goddess cult 126 especially among the matriarchal 127 and the agricultural 128 races throughout the world.

Though the Rgvedic society was "pastoral" and there was no cult of a mother goddess among them 129 there are some

female deities to whom hymns are addressed in the Rgveda 130. But in the post-Vedic times, the mother goddess worship reasserted itself¹³¹ when with the assumption of agriculture the Vedic people adopted from the local races some of the agricultural goddesses and their fertility 132 cults and made them part of their own culture 133. P.K. Sharma points out 134 that in the post-Vedic period of later minor Upanisads, Epics and the Puranas, the goddesses received places of supreme worship. According to Srivastava¹³⁵ the Puranic descriptions of the goddesses are the attempts to explain and to synthesize the cults and beliefs of the common people who were absorbed into the broad frame work of Hinduism. These goddesses became objects of independent cults around the first century A.D 136. Gradually various religious movements like Buddhism, Jainism, Vaisnavism and above all Saivism assumed these female principles (Sakti) into their system of thought (philosophy) and expressions (cult)137. Payne138 and P.K. Sharma 139 are of the opinion that an independent Sakta Sect was already well established by the 2nd and 3rd century A.D.

9. A well-developed Śākta Sect by Gupta period

The independent existence of Śāktism as a well-developed and distinct religious Sect by the Gupta period can be proved from the literary and archaeological evidences. For example Varāhamihira (Fifth Century A.D) enumerates 140, among the religious Sects prevalent in his time, the Śāktas, who are well versed in the Tāntric rituals of the mother goddess. In his own words:

viṣṇor bhāgavatān magāmśca savituḥ śamboḥ sabhasmadvijān mātṛnām api maṇḍalakarmavido viprān vidurbrahmaṇaḥ śākyān sarvahitasya śāntamanaso nāgnān jinānām vidu rye yam devamupāśritāḥ svavidhinā taistasyakāryākriyā¹⁴¹

This passage amply proves that the Saktas acquired a recognised place as an independent religious Sect by the time of Varāhamihira. This fact is further supported by a somewhat fragmentary inscription, found at Gandhar in Malwa, which reads:

mātṛnāň ca pramuditaghanātyartha nihrādinīnāṁ tāntrodbhūtaprabala pavanodvarttit — āmbhonidhīnām

(broken portion) gatam idam dākinīsamprakīrņam veśmātyugram nr patisacivo' kārayat puņyahetoh 142.

This inscription was written in the Malva year 480 (i.e. 423-24 A.D). It states among the other things that one Mayūrakṣaka, a minister of Viśvavarman, the father of Kumāragupta I's feudatory Bandhuvarman caused to be built for the sake of his religious merit this very terrible abode filled full of female ghouls, of the divine mothers, who utter loud and tremendous shouts in joy (and) who stir up the (very) oceans with the mighty wind rising from the magic rites of their religion" 143

Vindhya in the central India is considered to be the perpetual abode of the Goddess 144. The above literacy and archaeological evidences support the existence of a developed and independent religious Sakta Sect in the Central India at least by the Fifth Century A.D. According to M.C.P. Srivastava 145 this Sakta Sect reached its final culmination and maturity by 600 A.D. as marked out by the Devimahātmya section of the Mārkandeya Pūrana belonging to the Gupta period 146. This Devimahatmyakhanda is the earliest available text giving some philosophical aspects of the Saktavada147. According to N.N. Bhattacharya too the Śākta principles find expression in the Devimahātmya section (composed between the third and fifth Centuries A.D.) 148. A critical and analytical study of the four devistutis contained in the Devimahatmyakhanda may throw more light on the tenets of the Saktavada in those days.

According to mythology King Suratha and his companion the merchant Samādi wanted to know the origin and the nature of the Goddess <code>Mahāmāyā</code>, pervading the whole world with her snares of illusion. They approach <code>Rsi</code> Medhas, who explained to them the greatness of the Goddess with appropriate stories in lengthy details. The mighty deeds of the Goddess for the protection and the well-being of gods are enumerated in this account in the form of <code>Brahmastuti</code>, <code>Śakrādistuti</code>, <code>Viṣṇumāyāstava</code> and <code>Nārayaṇistuti</code>. These <code>stutis</code> are the expressions of the faith that the power and dignity of the Goddess is much superior to all the gods including <code>Brahmā</code>, <code>Indra</code>, <code>Viṣṇu</code> etc. They also in a characteristic manner express the ideas about the power and energy

centering round the Devi¹⁴⁹. In this section of *Devimahātmya*, the Goddess is invoked as the beginning and the end of everything, the incomprehensible source of everything. For example:

"Thou art the cause of all the worlds—though characterized by three qualities, even by Hari, Hara and other gods, thou art incomprehensible. Thou art the resort of all, thou art this entire world which is composed of parts. Thou verily art the sublime original nature untransformed ¹⁵⁰.

J.N. **Banerjea** has pointed out that the process of emanation of everything from the great and the primary Principle is described in detail in the *prādhānikarahasya* of the *Candī* portion of the same *Purāṇa*¹⁵¹. Here the major gods like Viṣṇu, Rudra and Brahmā find a well recognised, but a subordinate place¹⁵².

Thus there is ample evidence to prove beyond any doubt the existence of a well-developed $S\bar{a}ktav\bar{a}da$, in which the female principle is conceived to be the source of everything at least by the end of the fifth century A.D. It is also to be noted that although the worship of a goddess originated, perhaps in pre-vedic times, $S\bar{a}ktism$ as a philosophical system has developed only in the early centuries of A.D., which, as **Srivastava** has pointed out, has reached its culmination at least by the sixth century A.D.

10. Nimbārka could not have lived before the early part of the sixth century AD

Nimbārka who criticises a rather developed Śāktavāda could not have lived prior to the end of the fifth century A.D¹⁵³. As we have pointed out in chapter four above, the Saurabhakāra is also the pūrvapakṣin for Śaṁkara in a number of places in his bhāṣya. That would mean that Nimbārka the Saurabhakāra, lived sometime before the end of the eighth century A.D. On the other hand our study of the Sāṁkhya system as known to Nimbārka prompts us to place him prior to Īśvarakṛṣṇa, the author of the Sāṁkhyakārikās, who might have lived sometime in the sixth century A. D¹⁵⁴. Therefore, it is more probable that Nimbārka lived in the first quarter of the sixth century A.D. or just before that. But the

awareness of a developed Śāktavāda on the part of Nimbārka compels us to place him to a period after 400 A.D.

Danielson 155 in his work on the Paramarthasara of Ādiśesa¹⁵⁶ shows that the bhedābheda thought was popular in the early part of the sixth century A.D. He points out that versus 26 and 27 of the Paramarthasara describe that all living entities are the modifications (vikrtayah) of the Supreme Self. This Supreme deity is called Visnu in verses, 1, 33, 56, 74 and 86, or Vasudeva in verses 29 and 30. Significantly in verse 29 the highest God, Vasudeva, is identified with the self of all. Notwithstanding its theistic character Paramārthasāra nowhere emphasises bhakti, the ardent personal devotion as propounded in the Gita. On the contrary Adisesa advocates Jñana or vidya as the primary means of liberation. These views of Adisesa are very much similar to those of Nimbarka 157. It only shows that the Vedanta and Vaisnava trends in the early Sixth century were the same as we find in the Saurabha. These findings also support the view that Nimbarka lived some time in the early sixth century A.D¹⁵⁸. Therefore the probable date of Nimbarka could be around 450-525 A.D.

Conclusion

Many modern scholars have placed Nimbārka to a post-Samkara period primarily on the assumption that the late works ascribed to Nimbārka by his followers and containing later philosophical trends were really the works of the ācārya. We have sufficiently demonstrated that these works cannot be of Nimbārka, the Saurabhakāra 159. The exclusion of these spurious works will also help us to weed out extraneous elements from the philosophical position of the Saurabhakāra. There had been diverse views on the date of Nimbārka precisely because we do not have any direct documentary evidence to prove his date accurately. In the above pages we have put forth a number of corroborative arguments to show that Nimbārka probably lived in the later part of the fifth century or in the first quarter of the sixth century A.D.

The traditional belief among the followers of Nimbārka that he is the first commentator (ādyācāryaḥ) seems to have

an element of truth in it in so far as the Saurabha of Nimbārka seems to be the earliest available vṛṭṭi on the Brahmasūṭras. Naturally, there might have been other commentators and ācāryas of the Vedānta thought before Nimbārka. But we do not have any such vṛṭṭi on the Brahmasūṭra as archaic in language and style as the Saurabha.

Since Nimbārka lived in the early part of the sixth century A.D. he cannot possibly be an immediate disciple of Nārada, the ācārya mentioned in the Chāndogyopaniṣad7 and much less of Nārada of the mythology. It is also not possible to consider Śrīnivāsa, whom we have valid reasons to assign to a post-Śamkara period¹⁶⁰, to be the immediate disciple of Nimbārka. Just as we know nothing about many of the ācāryas in the list of the guruparamparās, it is quite possible that there might have been many other ācāryas, who left no traces of their existence. The question of any ācāryapītha and the legitimacy of succession seems to have propped up in the Nimbārka school only when a major split took place in the Sect after Harivyāsadeva. This question of legitimacy seems to have been the raison d'être of the various guruparamparās.

Similarly, it is evident that the Rādhākṛṣṇa cult, which is a special feature of the Nimbārkites today is a later appendage to the school in post-Śrīnivāsa period since the Saurabhakāra and even the Kaustubhakāra do not speak of any such sādhanas as premalakṣanā bhakti as a means for liberation. Our findings help us to have a better understanding of Nimbārka and his philosophy.

Chapter 7

A GENERAL ANALYSIS OF VEDĀNTAPĀRIJĀTA SAURABHA

Introduction: the sources of the Saurabha

In the first part of our study, we saw that Nimbārka, the author of the *VedāntapārijātaSaurabha*, must have belonged to a pre-Samkara period. In this second part we shall take up a detailed study of the teachings of Nimbārka, the philosopher, contained in the *Saurabha*. A general examination of the *Saurabha* reveals that the Saurabhakāra has taken support to substantiate the *aupaniṣadic* doctrine from the following sources:

- 1. Samhitās (Rgveda, the three collections of the black Yajurveda, namely Kātḥaka, Maitrāyani, Taittirīya);
- 2. Brāhmaṇas (Śatapatha, Tāṇḍyamahā Brāhmaṇa, Taittirīya);
- 3. Āraṇyakas (Aitareya, Taittirīya);
- Upaniṣads (Aitareya, Brhadāranyaka, Chāndogya¹, Katha, Kauṣitaki, Mahānārāyana²(?), Maitrāyaniya, Mundaka, Praśna, Śvetāśvatara, Taittiriya);
- 5. Sūtra texts (Āpastamba srauta sūtra, Gautamadharmasūtra);
- 6. Epics (Mahābhārata including Bhagavadgītā);
- 7. Smrti texts (Atri, Daksa, Manu, Yājñavalkya, Vasistha);
- 8. Purāṇas (Agni, Kūrma, Viṣṇu);
- 9. Philosophical texts (Jaiminisūtra).

The above sources reveal that the Saurabhakāra has no dependence on any of the so-called sectarian literature of the later centuries as we find in the writings of the post-Śamkara

Brhmasūtrabhāṣyakāras like Rāmānuja and Madhva. What is more significant and striking is the absence of any quotation not only from the later Purāṇas but also from the later Upaniṣads and philosophical sūtras of the other darśanas apart from pūrvamīmāmsā.

Analysis of the Vedāntapārijāta Saurabha

(the number on the right hand refers to the sūtra in each pāda)

ADHYĀYA ONE

(A) The First Pāda			
	1.	Brahman ³ is the object of enquiry	(1-4)
	1.1	An investigation into Brahman Rāmākānta Puruṣottama, isalways to be undertaken by a <i>mumukṣu</i> who has the proper qualifications.	(1)
	1.2	Brahman is the Bhagavān from whom originate the $srstisthitilaya$ of this world .	(2)
	1.3	The śāstra alone can make him known.	(3)
	1.31	The entire Veda is in Samanvaya (confluence) in revealing him, who is the Viśvātma, Sarvabhinnābhinna Bhagavān, Vāsudeva.	(4)
	2.	The $acetanak\bar{a}rana$ (unconscious cause) is not the $k\bar{a}rana$ (the cause) known in the $s\bar{a}stra$	(5-12)
	2.1	The acetanapradhāna is not the jagatkāraṇa because \bar{i} kṣaṇa (perception) which is a cetanadharma is attributed to the jagatkāraṇa.	(5)
	2.11	ikṣati is not used in a secondary sense.	(6)
	2.2	Pradhāna is not the object denoted by the word sat and $\bar{a}tman$ because the mok , $sat}$ is the attainment of his nature.	(7)
	2.21	On account of the absence of the statement of <i>heyatva</i> and its <i>prayojana</i> , the object denoted by words like <i>sat</i> , etc. is not the <i>pradhāna</i> .	(8)
	2.3	The $acetanak\bar{a}ranav\bar{a}da$ is invalid because of the contradiction of $pratij\bar{n}\bar{a}$.	(9)
	2.4	Brahman is the jagatkāraṇa denoted by the word sat.	(10)
	2.5	In all the $Ved\bar{a}ntas$ (i.e. $upaniṣads$) the $cetanak\bar{a}raṇa$ is equally known.	(11)
	2.51	Because of the Scriptural declaration of the causality of the <i>sarveśvara</i> , the inner controller of all, <i>pradhāna</i> is not to be accepted.	

3.	Paramātman who is different (bhinna) from the jiva is ānandamaya (1	3-22)
3.1	Paramātman, not jīva, is the ānandamaya (consisting	
	of bliss).	(13)
3.11	"Maya" means prācurya (abundance).	(14)
3.2	Paramātman is ānandamaya because he is the cause of the ānanda (bliss) of the jīva.	(15)
3.21	The text "satyam jñānam anantam brahma" (Tait 2.1) is praised by the word ānanda.	(16)
3.3	The jiva is not anandamaya.	(17)
3.31	Because of the distinction (bheda) between the obtainer and the obtained.	(18)
3.32	An individual self (pratyagātman) is dependent on matter, but the Ānandamaya, Puruṣottama, creates everything through mere intention, samkalpa (will).	(19)
3.4	On obtaining him, the $j\bar{i}$ va becomes blissful. Therefore he is anya (different).	(20)
3.5	The one abiding within the sun and the eye and to be meditated on by the mumukṣu is the Paramātman, who is apahatapāpman (free from sin), the sarvātman (soul of all) and not any particular jīva.	(21)
3.51	The Paramatman is anya (other) from the group of the	(21)
3.31	jivas like the sun etc. because of the designation of difference.	(22)
4.	The symbolic presentation of Brahman/ Paramatman/Bhagavan (2	23-28)
4.1	The "final goal" denoted by the word "ākāśa" (ether) is the <i>Paramātman</i> who is the creator of all things.	(23)
4.2	The <i>prāṇa</i> (vital breath) is <i>Paramātman</i> (because it is described as the "Alpha" (<i>udgamana</i>) and the "Omega" (<i>samveśana</i>) of all beings.	(24)
4.3	The <i>jyoti</i> (the light) is Brahman because all beings constitute a quarter (pāda) of him only.	(25)
4.4	Gāyatri denotes Bhagavan because of the association of Gāyatri with qualities like <i>ceto'rpaṇa</i> (application of mind), which can belong to the Lord alone.	(26)
4.41	Găyatri is Brahman not only because of the <i>ceto'rpaṇa</i> , but also because (the four feet viz.) the <i>bhūta</i> (being), <i>pṛthivī</i> (earth), <i>śarīra</i> (body), <i>hṛdaya</i> (heart) are appropriate (only) in Brahman the Bhagavan.	(27)
4.5	Dyaus (heaven) is Brahman because there is no con-	(27)

	tradiction in presenting Brahman as the <i>adhikaraṇa</i> (locus) as well as the <i>avadhi</i> (limit).	(28)
5.	Everything is Brahmātmaka (Brahman as its soul) (2	9-32)
5.1	The object denoted by the term <i>prāṇa</i> is Paramātman, because of the qualities like <i>hitatamatva</i> (highest auspiciousness) <i>anantatva</i> (endlessness) etc.	(29)
5.11	The object denoted by Prāṇa, Indra etc. in the Scripture (Kauṣ 3.1.) is Paramātman.	(30)
5.111	Indra said "mām eva vijānihi" (know me alone) because of his realization of the <i>Brahmātmakatva</i> of everything.	(01)
5.2	The above interpretation is correct on account of the three-foldness of <i>Brahmopāsanas</i> (meditation on Brahman) in accordance with the grade of the <i>upāsakas</i> (meditating devotees) viz. as the inner controller of the group of individual souls, as the inner controller of the	(31)
63	non-sentient objects and as different from them both.	(32)
	The Second Pada	(1 0)
1.	Brahman and the jiva are distinct	(1-8)
1.1	Because the texts like "sarvam khalv idam brahma" Chānd 3.14.1-2) denote the Paramātman well-known in all the vedāntas, as the object of meditation.	(1)
1.11	Because the attributes of manomayatva, satyasamkalpatva, etc. mentioned in Chānd 3.14.2 are appropriate on the part of Brahman alone.	(2)
1.12	These attributes are not appropriate on the part of the jiva.	(3)
1.13	The śarīra (embodied soul) is not the vācya of manomayatva etc because of the designation of karma (object) and kartr. (agent) in Chānd 31.4.4 "into him I	
	shall enter on departing hence".	(4)
1.131	Their distinction is clear in the text "eṣa ma ātmāntar hṛdaye" this soul of mine within the heart (Chānd 3.14.3) because of the nominative and genitive case	
	endings.	(5)
	The Smrti text "iśvarah sarvabhūtānām hrddeśe arjuna tisthati" (Gītā 18.6) also declares their bheda.	(6)
1.14	The description of Brahman (the Great) as smaller than a grain of rice, abiding within the heart (<i>Chānd</i> 3.14.3) fits in as in the case of <i>gavākṣavyomavat</i>	
	(window and the ether).	(7)

1.15	Though Brahman has sarvahrdaya sambandha, He does not have sambhogaprāpti (experience of pleasure and pain) like the jīva, because of the atyantaviśeṣa	
	between them as apahatapāpmā and svakrtakarmaphalabhoktr, respectively.	(8)
2.	Brahman is the eater of all	(9-10)
2.1	Śri Puruṣottama is the attā (eater) of the entire carācaraviśva, (movable and immovable universe), mentioned as Brāhmaṇa and Kṣatriya in Katḥa 2.25.	(9)
2.2	Bhagavan Puruṣottama is the attā because he is the topic of discussion in the text "the great, the all-pervading" (Katḥa 2.22).	(10)
3.	The Pramatman and the jiva indwell in the body	11-12)
3.1	The two <i>cetanātmans</i> (sentient souls) ($Katha~3.1$) that have entered into the cave, are to be understood as the jīva and Paramātman because of the respective scriptural texts ($Katha~2.12$) denoting them.	(11)
3.2	The jiva and the <i>Para</i> are to be understood as having entered into the cave because of their specific mention (<i>Katha</i> 1.17 and 3.2) as the <i>upāsya</i> and the <i>upāsaka</i> as well as the <i>vedya</i> (object to be known) and the <i>vettr</i>	
	(knower).	(12)
4.	The Puruṣa within the eye (Chānd 4.15. 1-5) is the Paramātman	13-18)
4.1	Because the qualification as ātman, abhaya (fearlessness) (Chānd 4.15.1) samyadvāmā (Chānd 4.15.2) (being the uniter of all lovely things) etc. are proper to Purusottama alone.	(13)
4.2	Because the text "yaś cakṣusitisṭḥan" (Bṛh3.7.18) also designates the sthāna of the Parmātman as the eye.	(14)
4.3	Also because the Para is mentioned as characterised by joy (in the earlier text) "kam brahma (pleasure is Brahman) kham brahma" (the ether is Brahman) (Chānd 4.10.4)	(15)
4.31	What is characterized as joy is Brahman because there is a mutual specification of joy and ether in <i>Chānd</i> 4.10.5.	(16)
4.4	Since the same final goal for the "śrutopaniṣatka (the one who has heard the upanisads) mentioned in <i>Praśna</i> 1.10, is mentioned here also in <i>Chānd</i> 4.15.5 as	

	the final goal, the akṣyantarapuruṣa is Puruṣottama alone.	(17)
4.5	The aksyantara is none other than the Paramatman, because none other than He abides regularly there and because of the impossibility of amrtatva, etc, on the part of anybody else.	(18)
5.	The antaryāmin (inner controller) is the Paramātman	9-21)
5.1	The antaryāmin mentioned in reference to the adhidevas	3-21)
	(presiding deities) of <i>pṛthivi</i> , etc, in <i>Bṛh</i> 3.7.3 is Paramātman alone because of the designation here of <i>dharmas</i> (qualities) like <i>sarvaniyantṛtva</i> , (controller of all), etc, to him.	(19)
5.2	The Pradhāna is not the vācyamof antaryāmin because of the mention of cetanadharmas like sarvaniyantrtva, sarvadrstrtva (seer of all) etc.	(20)
5.3	Nor the jiva is the <i>antaryāmin</i> because the Kāṇvās (<i>Bṛh</i> 3.7.22) and the Mādhyandinas (Cf, <i>Śat Br</i> 14.6.7.30)	
	depict it as different from the antaryāmin.	(21)
6.	The "adrsyam" (invisible) is the Paramatman (2	2-24)
6.1	The adr.syatvādigunakam adr.syam presented by the	
	Atharvanikas (Cf, Mund 1.1.6) is Paramatman alone because of the mention of His dharmas like Sarvajñatva, etc. (Cf, Mund 1.1.9).	(22)
6.2	because of the mention of His dharmaslike Sarvajñatva, etc. (Cf, Mund 1.1.9). The Pradhāna and the jīva are not the padavācya of bhūtayoni (the source of being) and akṣara (imperishable) because of the designation of viseṣaṇa (specific attribute) and bheda (difference) in the texts "sarvagatam" (Mund 1.1.6) and akṣarātparataḥ paraḥ	
	because of the mention of His dharmaslike Sarvajñatva, etc. (Cf, Mund 1.1.9). The Pradhāna and the jīva are not the padavācya of bhūtayoni (the source of being) and akṣara (imperishable) because of the designation of viśeṣaṇa (specific attribute) and bheda (difference) in the texts "sarvagatam" (Mund 1.1.6) and akṣarātparataḥ paraḥ (Mund 2.1.2) respectively.	(22)
6.2	because of the mention of His dharmaslike Sarvajñatva, etc. (Cf, Mund 1.1.9). The Pradhāna and the jīva are not the padavācya of bhūtayoni (the source of being) and akṣara (imperishable) because of the designation of viśeṣaṇa (specific attribute) and bheda (difference) in the texts "sarvagatam" (Mund 1.1.6) and akṣarātparataḥ paraḥ (Mund 2.1.2) respectively. Because of the mention of the rūpa (form) of Paramātman in the text agnir murddhā (fire is his head) (Mund 2.1.4)	(23)
	because of the mention of His dharmaslike Sarvajñatva, etc. (Cf, Mund 1.1.9). The Pradhāna and the jīva are not the padavācya of bhūtayoni (the source of being) and akṣara (imperishable) because of the designation of viśeṣaṇa (specific attribute) and bheda (difference) in the texts "sarvagatam" (Mund 1.1.6) and akṣarātparataḥ paraḥ (Mund 2.1.2) respectively. Because of the mention of the rūpa (form) of Paramātman	
6.3 7.	because of the mention of His dharmaslike Sarvajñatva, etc. (Cf, Muṇḍ 1.1.9). The Pradhāna and the jīva are not the padavācya of bhūtayoni (the source of being) and akṣara (imperishable) because of the designation of viśeṣaṇa (specific attribute) and bheda (difference) in the texts "sarvagatam" (Muṇḍ 1.1.6) and akṣarātparataḥ paraḥ (Muṇḍ 2.1.2) respectively. Because of the mention of the rūpa (form) of Paramātman in the text agnir murddhā (fire is his head) (Muṇḍ 2.1.4) etc. the adṛṣyam is not the other two.	(23)
6.3	because of the mention of His dharmas like Sarvajñatva, etc. (Cf, Mund 1.1.9). The Pradhāna and the jīva are not the padavācya of bhūtayoni (the source of being) and akṣara (imperishable) because of the designation of viśeṣaṇa (specific attribute) and bheda (difference) in the texts "sarvagatam" (Mund 1.1.6) and akṣarātparataḥ paraḥ (Mund 2.1.2) respectively. Because of the mention of the rūpa (form) of Paramātman in the text agnir murddhā (fire is his head) (Mund 2.1.4) etc. the adrsyam is not the other two. The Vaiśvānara is Brahman (2) Though Vaiśvānara (Cf Chānd 5.11.1) is a common term for Agni and Brahman, here it denotes Brahman alone, because of the knowledge of His viseṣa from the	(23)
6.3 7.	because of the mention of His dharmaslike Sarvajñatva, etc. (Cf, Mund 1.1.9). The Pradhāna and the jīva are not the padavācya of bhūtayoni (the source of being) and akṣara (imperishable) because of the designation of viśeṣaṇa (specific attribute) and bheda (difference) in the texts "sarvagatam" (Mund 1.1.6) and akṣarātparataḥ paraḥ (Mund 2.1.2) respectively. Because of the mention of the rūpa (form) of Paramātman in the text agnir murddhā (fire is his head) (Mund 2.1.4) etc. the adṛṣyam is not the other two. The Vaiśvānara is Brahman Though Vaiśvānara (Cf Chānd 5.11.1) is a common term for Agni and Brahman, here it denotes Brahman alone, because of the knowledge of His visesa from the description of his avayavas (parts) such as "having heaven as the head".	(23)
6.3 7.	because of the mention of His dharmaslike Sarvajñatva, etc. (Cf, Mund 1.1.9). The Pradhāna and the jīva are not the padavācya of bhūtayoni (the source of being) and akṣara (imperishable) because of the designation of viśeṣaṇa (specific attribute) and bheda (difference) in the texts "sarvagatam" (Mund 1.1.6) and akṣarātparataḥ paraḥ (Muṇḍ 2.1.2) respectively. Because of the mention of the rūpa (form) of Paramātman in the text agnir murddhā (fire is his head) (Muṇḍ 2.1.4) etc. the adṛṣyam is not the other two. The Vaiśvānara is Brahman Though Vaiśvānara (Cf Chānd 5.11.1) is a common term for Agni and Brahman, here it denotes Brahman alone, because of the knowledge of His viseṣa from the description of his avayavas (parts) such as "having"	(23) (24) 25-33)

1.2	the basis of rūdhi (convention) or the mention of a triad of Agnis or of its being the ādhāra (abode) of the āhuti (offerings) to prāṇa or of its being within (antaḥ pratiṣṭhāna), but the Vaiśvānara is the Paramātman	
	alone, on account of the <i>upadeśa</i> to perceive the Parameśvara in the <i>jātḥara</i> , on account of the impossibility of having heaven as its head unless Paramātman	
	is accepted, and on account of the declaration of its puruṣatva (personality).	(27)
7.3	For the same reason <i>devatā</i> (deity) and the <i>bhūtam</i> (element) are not understood by the word, <i>Vaiśvānara</i> .	(28)
7.4	On analysing the term <i>Vaiśvānara</i> Jaimini finds no contradiction in accepting <i>Vaiśvānara</i> as the <i>sākṣād upāsya</i> (directly to be meditated on) <i>sarvātma bhagavān</i> (the Lord, the soul of all).	(29)
7.5	Āśmarathya thinks that the Paramātman though ananta (infinite) can fittingly be regarded as limited by space (prādeśamātratvam) since He manifests Himself (abhivyajyate) according to the respective capacity of his ananya upāsakas (exclusive devotees).	(30)
7.6	Bădari thinks that the <i>kalpanā</i> (imagination) of a <i>deha</i> (body) from head to foot is for the sake of <i>anusmaraṇa</i> (recollection).	(31
7.7	Jaimini considers the <i>kalpanā</i> of their <i>uras</i> (breast), etc, as the <i>vedi</i> , (altar) is to effect the identification of the <i>āhuti</i> (offering) of the <i>prāṇa</i> which is an integral part of the <i>Vaiśvānaravidyā</i> with <i>agnihotra</i> .	(32)
7.8	And the scriptures record this <i>Vaiśvānara</i> as a Puruṣa in the body of the <i>upāsaka</i> .	(33)
(C) 1	he Third Pāda	
1.	Brahman is the support (āyatanam) of heaven and earth	(1-7)
1.1	Because the word ātman in the text (Mund 2.2.5) denotes Brahman.	(1)
1.12	Because such an <i>āyatanam</i> alone is presented as the object to be approached by the <i>mukta</i> (Muṇḍ 3.1.13).	(2)
1.2	No text presents the Pradhāna obtained through inference as that $\bar{a}yatanam$.	(3)
1.3	For the same reason the $pr\bar{a}nabhr$, (the bearer of the $pr\bar{a}na$) is not the $\bar{a}yatanam$.	(4)

1.31	Also due to the designation of bheda between the jnatr and the jneya, the pranabhrt is not the ayatanam.	(5)
1.32	Jiva cannot be understood as the <i>āyatanam</i> because the Paramātman is the topic of discussion.	(6)
1.33	Also because in the text "dvā suparņā" (two birds) (Muṇḍ 3.1.1), the Paramātman is presented as the abiding abhoktr (non-eater) while the jīva as the eater (adanāt),	
	the jīva is not the āyatanam.	(7)
2.	The bhūman (the plenitude) is the Paramatman	(8-9
2.1	The bhūman taught by the Paramācārya Śrīkumāra to our guru Śrīman Nārada (Chānd 7.23.1) is not the prāṇa, but Śrī Puruṣottama because of the teaching of bhūman as above the prāṇa.	(8)
2.11	Because of the appropriateness of (the attributes like) niratiśaya sukharūpatva, (in the form unsurpassed pleasure) amrtatva (immortality) svamahimapratisthitatva (established on one's own	
	greatness) etc. to the Paramatman alone.	(9)
3.	The akṣara (imperishable) is the Brahman (1	0-12)
3.1	The akṣara is Brahman because of its dhāraṇa (support) of ākāśa, indicated as the support of the effects in the three-fold time (past, present and future).	(10)
3.11	This/supporting (dhṛṭi) is by Puruṣottama alone because of the declaration of his ājñāpayitṛṭva (command) (in Bṛh 3.8.9)	(11)
3.2	Neither the Pradhāna nor the jīva, but the Paramātman alone can be understood by the term akṣara because of the exclusion of any other bhāva (nature) in the Bṛh	
	3.8.11.	(12)
4.	Brahman and Brahmā are different	(13)
4.1	The object of ikṣati in the text "puri śayam puruṣam ikṣate" (Praśna 5.5.) is not the Brahmā but the Paramātman abiding in his own asādhāraṇa (special) and aprākṛta (non-material) brahmaloka, because of the designation of his dharmas (qualities) like śāntam	
	(tranquil), ajaram (ageless), abhayam (fearless), etc.	(13)
5.		4-23)
5.1	The dahara ākāśa (Chānd 8.1.1) can only be the Paramātman, because of the mention of the asādharaṇadharmas (unique qualities) of the	

	Paramātman like apahatapāpman, (sinless) vijara, (ageless) etc. in the later texts (Chānd 8.1.3)	(14)
5.11	The <i>dahara</i> is the <i>Para</i> on account of the texts concerning the <i>gati</i> (going) of all beings to Him.	(15)
5.12	The vidhārakatvam (holding apart) of the worlds (Chānd 8.4.1) fits in with the Paramātmatva of the dahara, for such a greatness is observed in Paramātman alone (Bṛh 3.8.9).	(16)
5.2	The daharākāśa is Paramātman alone because the word "ākāśa" is well known to be denoting Paramātman as the source of all beings in (Chānd 8.14.1, 1.9.1).	(17)
5.3	The <i>dahara</i> (<i>Chānd</i> 8.3.4) is not jīva, because of the impossibility of <i>apahatapāpmatva</i> (freedom from sin) etc. on its part.	
5.31	The dahara is the nityāvirbhūtasvarūpaḥ (whose real nature is ever manifest) Paramātman, endowed with the stated eightfold guṇas, and not the āvirbhūtasvarūpaḥ jīva.	(18)
5.311	The reference to the jīva is to show the hetutva (the causality of the Paramātman in the āvirbhāva of the jīvasvarūpa.	(19)
5.4	The all-pervading Brahman can be described as the small ether as shown in Saurabha 1.2.7	(20)
5.5	The jīva, who is an anukartā (imitator) (in Katḥa 5.15) of the nityāvirbhūtasvarūpa cannot be the nityāvirbhūtasvarūpaḥ daharaḥ.	(21)
5.6	Also <i>smṛti</i> (<i>Gītā</i> 14.2) declares that the jīva acquires these attributes.	(23)
6.	Brahmopāsana (c	24-41)
6.1	Since the anguṣṭḥaparimāṇaka (measured the size of a thumb) is declared as the Lord of the past and of the	
6.11	future (in <i>Katḥa</i> 4-13), he is the <i>Puruṣottama</i> . His description as the <i>angustḥamātratva</i> (the size of a	(24)
0.11	mere thumb) with reference to the heart of the <i>upāsaka</i> (worshipper) is proper as men alone are entitled to (his <i>upāsana</i>). (This discussion is continued in <i>sūtra</i> 40	
	below).	(25)
6.2	Bādarāyaṇa thinks that the <i>devas</i> (gods) are also entitled to the Brahmopāsana, since they are above men.	(26)
6.21	Since one and the same deity can assume many bodies simultaneously (yugapat), Brahmopāsana is possible on their part and there is no contradiction with regard	
	to object	(2.7)

6.3	The corporality (vigrahatvam) of gods does not involve the nirarthakatva (meaninglessness) of the vedic word both before the origin of the object and after its destruction because the objects originate (arthasya prabhavāt) from the word, denoting their eternal prototype (nityākṛtivācakāt) serving as reminder to the thought of Prājāpati. (Tait Br 2.6.2.3, Mbh 12.232.25).	(28)
6.31	Since the sṛṣṭi (creation) by Prajāpati is preceded by the (Vedic) śabda, the Vedas are nitya.	(29)
6.32	Thus there is no contradiction even with regard to the recurrence of sṛṣṭi and samhāra (destruction) of the material world because the objects created in the beginning of each kalpa (age) have the same nāma and rūpa as those in the past kalpas (RV 10-190.3, Mbh. 12.232.40).	(20)
6.4	Jaimini thinks that <i>sūrya</i> , etc. have no right to <i>vidyās</i> like <i>Madhu</i> ⁴ , etc. because of the impossibility of the <i>upāsya</i> (object to be worshipped) to be <i>upāsaka</i> .	(30)
6.41	The <i>pūrvapakṣin</i> thinks so also because of their being (bhāvāt) the <i>upāsaka</i> of Brahman.	(32)
6.42	Bādarāyaṇa maintains the right of Sūrya, Vasu, etc. to vidyās like the <i>Madhu</i> , etc. because of the possibility of <i>Brahmalipsā</i> (a longing for Brahman) on their part, antecedent to their future <i>adhikāraprāpti</i> (attainment of offices) through the <i>upāsana</i> of Brahman their antaryāmin.	(33)
6.5	Taking into consideration that the term śūdra is applied to a mumukṣu named Jānaśruti by his guru, it is not to be supposed that the śūdra is entitled to Brahmavidyā.	(33)
6.51	That Jānaśruti was not a śūdra is known from his being mentioned with the ksaṭriya Caitraratha Abhipratārin (in Chānd 4.3.5).	(35)
6.52	A śūdra is not entitled to vidyā because the upanayana saṁskāra (investiture rite) is referred to in the section dealing with vidyā (vidyāpradeśa). A śūdra is devoid of upanayana saṁskāra. (GDS 10.50, Manusmṛti 10.126).	(36)
6.53	Moreover, because Gautama invests Jābāla with upanayana only after ascertaining the absence of his "śūdrahood". A śūdra is not entitled to vidyā.	(37)
	Since a śūdra is forbidden to hear the veda (Vasistha Smṛti 18.9) he is not entitled (to Brahmavidyā)	(38)
6.55	And also because <i>smṛti</i> forbids teaching him the <i>dharmas</i> (sacred duties) (<i>Manusmṛti</i> 4.80)	(39)
		177

6.6	The pramita (measured) is the Parahpurusa because he is the shaker of the entire universe (sarvajagat kampakatuāt) and because of the (words) maket etc.	
	kampakatvāt) and because of the (words) mahat etc. (used for him).	(40)
6.61	The Pramita Puruṣa is the Para because jyoti is mentioned (darśanāt) in the text "tasya bhāsā" (Katḥa 5.15).	(41)
7.	The Paramatman is different from the jiva	12-44)
7.1	The vācya of the word ākāsa, presented as the producer of nāma and rūpa (Chānd 8.14.1) is the Puruṣottama, because of the designation of the producer of all objects as something different (arthāntaratvena) even from the mukta jīva.	(42)
7.11	MAIN FORM STATE AND STATE AND	(43)
7.2	On account of the designation of the <i>Paramātman</i> as different from the jiva in the text <i>sarvasyādhipati</i> (the Lord of all) (<i>Bṛh</i> 4.4.22) <i>sarvasyeśānah</i> (the ruler of all) (<i>Bṛh</i> 4.4.22), it is established that he alone is the	(10)
	ākāsa.	(44)
(D) ?	The Fourth Pāda	
1.	The Sāmkhya principles are not mentioned in the sāstra	(1-13)
1.1	The Pradhāna of the Sāmkhya is not intended by the term avyakta (unmanifest) in Katha 3.3. and 3.11 and 3.13 because the term avyakta there denotes śārīra,	
	(body).	(1)
1.11	The word avyakta, denoting something sūkṣma (subtle) can also denote the śarīra, which is a sthūla (grosser) state of the same sūkṣma.	(2)
1.2	The bheda between the aupaniṣadika pradhāna (the Pradhāna mentioned in the Upaniṣads) and the pradhāna taught by others is that the former is meaningful as it depends on the Paramakāraṇa (supreme cause) while the latter is not.	68.8
1.3	The word avyakta (in scripture) does not denote the pradhāna of the Tāntrikas also because of the absence of any statement of its jneyatva (object to be known).	E8 8
1.31	The text "anādy anantam mahataḥ param dhruvam nicāyya tam mṛṭyumukhāt pramucyate" (Katḥa 3.15) does not declare the jñyeyatvam of the pradhāna, but of the Prajña, i.e. the Paramātman; He being the topic.	

1.4	Since the prior and the posterior texts of this Upaniṣad contain the statements and questions about the upāya (means), upeya (the end) and the Upagantr, (the realizing agent) there is no chance of any ānumānikatattva (principle derived from inferene).	(6)
1.41	Just as the word mahat, applied to the sāmkhya principle bhudhi, is found applied differently in the vedic text "vadāham etam purusam mahantam (VājasaneyiSamhitā18.2, Śvet3.8) so the world avyakta may refer to the śarīra.	(7)
1.5	The prakti mentioned in the text "ajāmekām" (Śvet 4.5) is not the sāmkhyaprakti, but the Brahmātmikā (having Brahman for its soul) prakti because of the absence of any specification in establishing the pūrvapakṣa as in the case of "cup with its mouth below" (Brh 2.2.3).	(8)
1.51	The camasa (cup) is known as the sira (head) from the $v\bar{a}kyas'esa$ ($Brh2.2.3$). So also that which is denoted by $aj\bar{a}$ has $Brahman$ as its $k\bar{a}rana$ is known from the text "tasmād etad brahma nāma rūpam annam ca jāyate (Muṇḍ 1.1.9).	(9)
1.52	Brahmopādānakatva and ajātva (unborn) fit in one and the same subject because of the teaching of the viśvasṛṣṭi from Brahman, who is the sūkṣma śaktimat jagatkāraṇam, as in the case of Madhu (vidyā) etc.	(10)
1.6	It cannot be said that the twenty-five principles of the Sāmkhya are based on scripture (Cf, Brh 4.4.7), because the brahmātmaka padārthas based on the śruti are different from those of the Tāntrikas, and because of the excess of Brahman, the adhāra, (support) and likewise of the ākāśa.	(11)
1.61	The pañca pañcajanas mentioned in Brh 4.4.7 are to be known as prāna, cakṣu, śrotra, annam, and mana from the vākyaśeṣa (cf. Brh 6.4.17-18).	(12)
1.62	Since in the <i>vākyaseṣa</i> of the Kānvas 'annam' is absent, the <i>pañcatva</i> is to be completed by adding <i>jyoti</i> mentioned in the beginning.	(13)
2.		4-15)
2.1	The sarvajña, sarvaśakti Brahman, described in the lakṣaṇasūtra (in the characterizing aphorism) alone is to be understood as the kāraṇa in the texts dealing with the sṛṣṭi of akāśa, etc.	(14)
2.11	Since there is no distinction of $n\bar{a}ma$ and $r\bar{u}pa$ prior to creation and due to the absence of astitva connected	(14)

	with these nāma and rūpa, the Brahman who is ever sat (Tait 2.6, Chānd 3.19.1) is denoted prior to creation by the term asat (Tait 2,7, Chānd 3.19.1) or by the term avyakṛtam (Bṛh 1.4.7) the acetana pradhāna cannot at all be the antarātmabhūta praśāsitr, (controller) and thereby the jagatkāraṇa.	(15)
3.	The doctrine of Sāmkhya Purusa is untenable (1	6-22)
3.1	The Paramātman, not the Sānkhya puruṣa, is to be understood (in Kauṣ 3.9) as the dharmādharma karmaphalabhoktā because Brahman is the topic of discussion (Kauṣ. 4.1). Here Karma (meaning "something done", denotes the jagat, (which is a Kārya) and is proved by pratyakṣa, etc.	(16)
3.2	The characteristic marks of the jiva (Kauṣ. 4.20) and of the mukhyaprāṇa (Kauṣ 3.3) are to be understood as referring to the Brahman, as explained in the section of Pratardana (Cf. Saurabha 1.1.29-31).	(17)
3.21	Jaimini thinks that the question and the reply (Kaus 4.19) show that in this prakarana (the term) jiva is suggestive of Brahman, who is other than the jiva. The question (Brh 2.1.16) and the reply (Brh 2.1.17) of the Vājasaneyins record the Paramātman as other than	(10)
3.3	the jiva. Paramātman is the object to be seen in the text "ātma vā are dṛṣṭavyaḥ (Bṛh 2.4.5, 4.5.6) because of the connection of the text with Him alone.	(18)
3.31	Āśmarathya thinks that since there is ananyatva of the jīva from Brahman, its cause, the supreme soul could be designated by a term denoting the individual soul.	(20)
3.32	Audulomi thinks that Brahman can be denoted by the word "jīva" because of the <i>sahabhāva</i> (union) of the jīva about to depart from the body, with Brahman.	(21)
3.33	Kāśakṛtsna thinks that the <i>niyantṛ</i> is understood by the <i>niyamya</i> because of the abiding of the <i>niyantṛ</i> (Paramātman) within the <i>niyamya</i> (jīva). (<i>Tait Ar</i> 3.11.1.2).	(22)
4.	Brahman is both the upādāna and the nimitta kāraṇa of the world	23-27)
4.1	The Paramātman alone is both the upādānakāraṇa and the nimittakāraṇa on account of the pratijñā (Chānd 6.1.3) and of the dṛṣṭānta (Chānd 6.1.4).	(23)

4.11	The <i>sṛṣṭitva</i> (creatorship) and the <i>prakṛṭitva</i> (material causality) of Brahman are established by the teaching of reflexion in the <i>śruti</i> (<i>Chānd</i> 6.2.3).	(24)
4.12	Śruti (Tait Br 2.8.9.6.7) presents Brahman as having the two-fold forms of nimittatva and the upādānatva of the world.	(25)
4.2	Brahman alone is the <i>nimitta</i> and the <i>upādāna</i> on account of His creating Himself (<i>Tait</i> 2.7). The sarvajāam, sarvašakti Brahman, having transformed Himself into the form of the jagat by the <i>vikṣepa</i> of his	
	śakti, becomes transformed through His own undeveloped (avyakrta) yet powerful and creative nature.	(26)
4.21	Since Brahman is declared as the <i>bhūtayoni</i> (source of beings) (Muṇḍ 1.1.6) and <i>brahmayoni</i> (Muṇḍ 3.1.3),	(0.5)
_	Brahman alone is the upādāna. All the Vedāntas refer to Brahman	(27)
5.		(28)
5.1	By the totality (samudāya) of the adhikaraṇas all the vedāntas are explained as referring to Brahman.	(28)
	ADHYĀYA TWO	
(A) T	The First Pāda	
1.	The smrtis that contradict the Vedas are to be rejected	
		(1.9)
1.1	The Sāmkhyasmṛti which advocates an acetanakāraṇa cannot be accepted because of its contradiction with other smṛtis, dealing with the cetanakāraṇa pro-	(1-2)
1.1	The Sāmkhyasmṛṭiwhich advocates an acetanakāraṇa cannot be accepted because of its contradiction with	(1-2)
	The Sāmkhyasmṛti which advocates an acetanakāraṇa cannot be accepted because of its contradiction with other smṛtis, dealing with the cetanakāraṇa propounded in the veda. Besides, Manu and the rest do not consider the Vedas	(1)
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3.2 Pūrvapakṣa II Brahman cannot be the jagad upādāna because of the possibility of His acquiring the acetanatva of the jagat at the time of dissolution. 3.21 Siddhānta There is no such possibility for just as the pṛthivīvikāras do not defile pṛthivī, when dissolved into it, so the brahmavikāra saṁsāra does not (defile Brahman). 3.22 The said defect equally applies to the Sāṁkhya doctrine which is also opposed to the Vedas. 3.3. Just as the vedaviruddha pradhāna is inferred to be the jagatkāraṇa on the basis of tarka (reason), there is the possibility also of rejecting it on the ground of similar tarka. Since there is no possibility of conclusion because of the disagreement among the tarkikas, what is mentioned in the Veda alone is to be accepted as the cause of the world. 3.4 By the rejection of the Sāṁkhya view, all the other Vedaviruddha kāraṇavādas are also rejected. 4. The bhedābheda relation between Brahman and His effects 4.1 The objection that if Brahman is the upādānakāraṇa of the jagat, He will also become the enjoying subject in the form of the jīva so that the Vedic distinction (vibhāga) between the enjoyer and the controller (niyanṭr) which will be contradicted cannot be accepted because there can still be a distinction (vibhāga) between them in spite of the non-distinction (avibhāga) as between the sea and the waves as well as between the sun and its rays. 4.11 There is ananyatva (non-difference), not		Brahman is the <i>prakṛṭikatva</i> (material cause) of the <i>jagat</i> inspite of difference between them because it is seen that hair etc. originate from a person from whom they are different and dung-beetles originate from cowdung from which it is different.	(6)
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atyantabhinnatva (absolute difference) between the kārya (effect) and the kāraṇa (cause) on account of the	4.11	There is ananyatva (non-difference), not atyantabhinnatva (absolute difference) between the	92

	scriptural texts (<i>Chānd</i> 6.1.4, <i>Chānd</i> 6.9.4, <i>Chānd</i> 3.14.1) denoting non-difference.	(14)
4.12	There is ananyatva (between them) because the $k\bar{a}rya$ can be perceived ($upalabdheh$) only when the $k\bar{a}rana$ is existent ($sadbh\bar{a}va$).	(15)
4.13	There is that ananyatva because of the existence of the kārya, belonging to a posterior time, (already) in the kāraṇa because of the designation of their sāmānādhikaraṇya (co-inherence) in the text: "Brahma vā idam agra āsit" (Bṛh 1.4.10).	(16)
4.2	The text "asad vā idam agra āsit" (Chānd 3.19.1) means not the asat of the kārya but its sūkṣmatva (subtleness) prior to creation as is known from the complementary passage (Chānd 3.19.1), for an asat kārya cannot be produced at all.	(17)
4.3	The universe is like a piece of cloth (patta) which is first rolled up and later spread out.	(18)
4.31	It is like the vāyu, having prāṇa, apāna, etc. when controlled by prāṇayāma remains in its real form and when the control is removed, is known instantly in various forms.	(19)
5.	There is difference between Brahman and jiva (2)	0-22)
5 . 5.1	There is difference between Brahman and jiva (2)	0-22)
		(20)
	Pūrvapakṣa If Brahman is accepted as the cause of the world (Brahmakāraṇavāda) the jiva becomes identified with Brahman (Bṛh 2.5.19) then there results the fault of not doing what is beneficial for ones own interest since	AFFA SC.O
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5.11	Pūrvapakṣa If Brahman is accepted as the cause of the world (Brahmakāraṇavāda) the jīva becomes identified with Brahman (Bṛh 2.5.19) then there results the fault of not doing what is beneficial for ones own interest since the created world is an abode of all the miseries. Siddhānta Brahman the creator of the world is superior to the embodied soul who is the enjoyer (bhoktṛ) of pleasure and pain. There is no absolute non-difference (atyantabheda) between them because of the designation of bheda (difference) in the text "ātmānam antaro yamayati (Śat Br. 14.6.7.30). Just like the vajra, vaidūrya, etc, which are the modifications of the earth (bhūvikāras), the kṣetrajāa though non-different (abhinna) from Brahman is different (bhinna) in its special qualities (svarūpa).	(20)

	ternal implements) like a potter. But like milk, He transforms (Himself) in accordance with the form (ākāra) of the kārya (effects) on account of His special power.	(23)
6.11	Just as the <i>devas</i> etc. create what they want through a mere wish (samkalpa), so does the Bhagavān also.	(24)
6.2	Pūrvapakṣa	
	If the jagatprakrtitva of Brahman is accepted He being niravayavin (without parts) there will be the consequence of His entirety (being transformed): on the other hand, His sāvayavatva (possessing parts) would contradict the śāstras.	(25)
6.21	Siddhānta	
	There does not exist the said $doṣa$ (fault) for the doctrine (of origin of the world from Brahman) is based on scripture ($Tait$ 2.6, 2.7, $Ch\bar{a}nd$ 3.12.6, $Mund$ 1.1.7).	(26)
6.22	When various vikrtis (modifications) are appropriate on the part of śārīrakṣetrajñas like the devas etc. how is it inappropriate on the part of the sarvasakti	18.4
	sarveśvara jagatkāraṇa?	(27)
6.23	The fault mentioned by you rebound to your own doctrine.	(28)
6.24	That <i>devatā</i> , endowed with <i>sarvaśakti</i> in accordance with the scriptures (<i>Śvet</i> 6.8) is able to do everything.	(29)
6.25	The objection that the <i>jagatkartrtvam</i> of the <i>sarvaśaktyupeta</i> (the one endowed with all powers) is not possible as He does not possess sense organs (<i>Svet</i> . 6.8) is not tenable, as already been pointed out (Cf	121
	Saurabha 2.1.26).	(30)
6.3	Pūrvapaķsa	
	The supreme being, who has all his desires eternally fulfilled cannot be the <i>kartā</i> since every activity has a purpose (<i>prayojana</i>).	(31)
6.31	Siddhānta	
	This creation on the part of the Para is proper like the $kr\bar{l}d\bar{a}$ (sports) of the kings.	(32)
6.4	The inequality and cruelty due to unequal creation and destruction depend not on the <i>jagajjanmādi kartā</i> , but on the <i>karma</i> of the jīva, as in the case of rain. (<i>Bṛh</i> 3.2.13).	(33)
6.41	The text "sad eva saumyedam agra āsīd ekam" (Chānd 6.2.1) does not go against either the anāditva of Karma	

	of the first jivas nor against the existence of the previous creations (RV 10.190-3).	(34)
6.5	Because of the appropriateness of all the kāraṇadharmas (all the attributes of a cause) on Brahman, there is no contradiction in our view.	(35)
(B) 7	The Second Pada	
(In th	nis Pāda rival systems of thought are refuted)	
1.	The Sāmkhya pradhāna cannot be the cause of the world	1-10)
1.1	The <i>pradhāna</i> is not the <i>jagatkāraṇam</i> because of its unacquaintance with the varied arrangements of the objects to be created.	(1)
1.2	It also lacks spontaneous activity.	(2)
1.21	Even if the <i>pradhāna</i> acts by itself, like milk, for the origin of the <i>jagat</i> , yet the <i>Para</i> is the inciter (<i>preraka</i>) in accordance with the text <i>yo'psu</i> tiṣṭhan (<i>Bṛ</i> h 3.7.4)	(3)
1.22	The pradhāna, which is not guided (adhisthitam) by the intelligent principle cannot be the jagatkāraṇa because the Sāmkhya does not accept any other sahakārin (accessory principle) besides the pradhāna.	(4)
1.23	It cannot be said that as the grass, eaten by cows, transforms itself into milk, the avyakta transforms itself into mahat etc, on account of the non-transformation of the grass eaten by a bull.	(5)
1.24	The acetanapradhāna cannot have any prayojana for its activity.	(6)
1.25	If the <i>Puruṣa</i> is said to move the <i>pradhāna</i> as a blind man makes a lame man move or as a magnet the iron, then the assumption of the <i>niṣkriyatva</i> (non-activity) of the <i>Puruṣa</i> will be contradicted and <i>pradhāna</i> , because of its being instigated by another (<i>parapreryatva</i>), cannot be the <i>jagatkāraṇa</i> .	(7)
1.26	Because of the impossibility of the Parasparāngāngibhāva (mutual subordination and preponderance) of the guṇas in the state of equilibrium at the time of pralaya, the pradhāna cannot be the jagatkāraṇa.	(8)
1.27	Even if <i>pradhāna</i> were in some way inferred, it cannot be the cause of jagat because of the absence of the <i>jñātrṭvaśakti</i> (the power of being a knower).	(9)
1.3	The doctrine of Kapila is inconsistent because of its <i>vedantāviruddhatva</i> and its inner contradictions.	(10)
1		185

2.	The Paramāṇuvāda is refuted (1	1-17)
2.1	There is inconsistency in the theory of the origin of dvyanukas (binary) and tryanukas (ternary) compounds of atoms etc. If the paramānus have parts, then there will be infinite regress and if they are without parts they cannot be the producers of other evolutes.	(11)
2.2	The udbhava of jagat is not possible on account of the impossibility of the ādyam karma (first motion) in the paramānus, (ultimate atoms). It is impossible for the adrṣta (the unseen principle) to inhere in the paramānus as well as be connected with the jīva to cause motion in the paramānus.	(12)
2.21	The paramāṇukāraṇapakṣa is impossible because of the anavasthā (infinite regress) of the samavāya relations.	(13)
2.3	If the paramāṇus are active by nature then there will be either nitya sṛṣṭi or nityapralaya.	(14)
2.4	If the paramāṇus have colour (rūpa) etc. like their respective effects (kāryas) like pot etc. then the paramāṇus must be anitya like these kāryas, otherwise the kāryas must be devoid of colour etc.	(15)
2.5	If the paramānus have numerous qualities ⁵ (upacita guṇāh), then the elements of earth, water, fire and air will be similar and if the paramānus have only a limited quality (i.e. each be possessed of its peculiar quality) then earth etc. having only the corresponding guṇas of their causes must be connected with one guṇa only. In both ways the result is the absence of creation.	(16)
2.6	Since the paramāṇukāraṇavāda is rejected by the wise (śiṣṭa), the mumukṣus must show absolute disregard for it.	(17)
	No. 10.	(17)
3.		8-32)
3.1	Because of the <i>acetanatva</i> of the components viz., the elements (<i>bhūta</i>), the elemental (<i>bhautika</i>), mind (<i>citta</i>) and mental (<i>caittika</i>), their aggregation (<i>samudāya</i>) is impossible in the absence of another cause for their union.	(18)
3.11	Sanghāta (aggregation) is not possible by the mutual causality (itaretarahetutva) of nescience (avidyā) past impressions (saṃskāra) congnition (vijnāna) name and form (nāmarūpa) six supports (ṣaḍāyatana) etc. be-	
	cause even they are not the cause of the aggregation.	(19)

3.12	the production of the subsequent because both are momentary (kṣaṇikatvena).	(20)
3.13	If there is the origin of the $k\bar{a}rya$ when the cause is asat then the thesis of the origin of $vj\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ from a four-fold cause consisting of $indriya$ (sense organ), $\bar{a}loka$ (light), $manask\bar{a}ra$ (direction of mind), and $visaya$ (sense objects) will be contradicted. If the cause is sat , then there will be $yaugapadyam$ (simultaneity) since at the origin of another $ksana$ (moment), the previous $ksana$ is still existent.	(21)
3.2	Because of the impossibility of an interruption of the santāna (series) and because of the recognition (pratyābhijnāyamānatvāt) of the members of the series there is no possibility of both a causal or causeless nirodha (destruction).	(22)
3.21	The view that $mok sa$ is the $nirodha$ of $avidy\bar{a}$ etc. is inconsistent because the series has no $vastutva$ (existence) beyond the single momentary members.	(23)
3.3	Their thesis of the non-existence of the ether is unreasonable because of (its) non-distinction from earth etc.	(24)
3.31	Also because of the recognition that this is that (idam tad iti pratyabhijñayā) that doctrine is untrue.	(25)
3.32	The origin of bhāva (entity) from abhāva is not observed.	(26)
3.33	Otherwise there must be achievement of goals (artha siddhi) like vidyā, etc. for the one who has not resorted	
3.4	to any means. There is no <i>abhāva</i> of external objects as held by the <i>vijnānamātrāstitvavādins</i> , (maintainers of the reality of consciousness alone) for these objects are perceived	(27)
3.41	(upalabdheḥ). Even on the analogy of the dream cognitions the arthābhāva (objectlessness) of the waking cognitions cannot be established both on account of the vaiṣamya	(28)
	(non-parallelism) of the dṛṣṭānta (example) and the dāṛṣṭānta (exemplified) and on account of the fact that the svapnajñāna (dream consciousness) too has a base (ālambanatva).	(29)
3.5	Those who deny the existence of external objects cannot defend the existence of vāsanā (past impres-	
	sions) to explain the variety in knowledge.	(30)

3.51	There is no vasana because of the kṣaṇikatva of the āśraya (substratum) according to your own doctrine.	(31)
3.6	Śūnyavāda is also erroneous because it is inconsistent in every way and because it contradicts pramāṇas like pratyakṣa, etc.	(32)
4.	The Jaina views refuted (3:	3-36)
4.1	The ascription of the dual contradictory attributes (dharmas) of existence, (astitva) non-existence (nāstitva), etc. to the same vastu (thing) by the Jainas is not reasonable, since it is impossible.	(33)
4.2	In the same way, at the attainment of a larger body there will be incompleteness of the ātman, which is accepted to be of the size of the body.	(34)
4.21	The ātman cannot be said to possess avayavas which are subject to increase and decrease because of the resulting fault of change (vikāritva) etc. on its part.	(35)
4.22	The dehaparimāṇavāda is completely destroyed by accepting the constancy of the final size of the soul because in that case there must be the nityatva of the initial and the intervening sizes also on account of the aviśeṣaḥ (non-distinction) everywhere.	(36)
5.	The Pāsupata doctrine is refuted (3)	7-41)
	The pāsupata doctrine must be rejected, for, it contradicts the Vedic teaching about the non-distinction of the upādāna (material) and nimitta (efficient) kāranas of the world, and because it initiates an upadharma.	(37)
5.1	Paśupati cannot be the cause of the world because the bodiless Paśupati (who is also the instigator) cannot have any relations (sambandha) with the pradhāna which is to be instigated.	(38)
5.2	(And) Pasupati cannot have a body, either eternal—because it contradicts experience—or non-eternal—because it arises later. Therefore he is not the cause of the world.	(39)
5.3	Even the supposition of the sense organs and the body	
	(karaṇakalevara) like (that of) the jiva, (on the part of Paśupati) is not possible because of the bhogaprasakti.	(40)
5.4		(40)

6.	Sāktavāda is refuted	42-45)
6.1	Since the origin of the jagat from Śakti without the puruṣa is not possible, śaktikāraṇavāda is invalid.	(42)
6.11	There cannot be (any) puruṣasamsarga because the puruṣa has no sense organ at that time (i.e. prior to creation).	(43)
6.2	If śaktivāda accepts that the jagatkartā has svābhāvika vijnāna (natural intelligence) etc. it is an acceptance of Brahman; (as a result) the śaktivāda is set aside by itself.	
6.3	Śaktipakṣa is aprāmaṇika (unauthoritative) as it contradicts śruti and smṛti.	, ,
(C) T	The Third Pada	
1.	The absence of the anyonyavirodha (mutual contradiction) of the śruti is determined. All the elements in the world originate from Brahman.	(1-7)
1.1	Pūrvapakṣa	
	The ether (viyat) does not originate since it is not mentioned in the Chāndogya text.	(1)
1.11	Siddhānta	
	The utpatti of viyat is mentioned in Taittirīyaka text "ātmana ākāśaḥ sambhūta" (Tait 2.1).	(2)
1.2	Pūrvapakṣa	
	This Taittirīyaka śruti is metaphorical (gauna) because the ākāśa is niravayava. Besides, Bṛh 2.3.3 speaks of the immortality of vāyu and antarikṣa.	
1.21	Also because the word sambhūta can be used in a metaphorical sense to the ākāśa and in the literal	
1.22	(mukhya) to the elements (as in Tait. 3.2). Siddhānta	(-1)
1.22	Since there is <i>avyatireka</i> (non-separation) of originated objects like $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$, etc. from Brahman there is the knowledge of all through the knowledge of Brahman. But if $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$ is not something originated, this thesis will be contradicted. The <i>Brahmāprthaktva</i> (non-separation from Brahman) of all is known from texts like "aitad ātmyam idam sarvam" (Chānd 6.8.7).	(5)
1.3	The text like "aitad ātmyam idam sarvam" (Chānd 6.8.7) establishes the vikāratvam (the created nature) of prapañca (of the universe). Vikāra denotes udbhav (origin) ⁶ . The absence of any mention of ākāśa and the	

	mention of <i>tejas</i> in <i>Chāndogya</i> (6.23) fits in as in ordinary life where reference to a group is made by mentioning some of them.		(6)
1.4	By this principle the origin of vāyu (Mātariśvan) is also explained.		11.0
2.	Brahman has no origin		(7)
2.1	There is anutpatti (non-origin) of Brahman, the Sat,		(8)
	because of the impossibility of having utpatti for the jagatkāraņa.		(8)
3.	Brahman creates everything and everything re-		
dia -	turns to him		9-15)
3.01	Pūrvapakṣa		
	"Tejas" (fire) originates from air in accordance with the text "Fire from the air" (Tait, 2.1).		(9)
3.02	$\bar{A}pas$ (water) from $tejas$ as declared by the text "water from fire". (Tait 2.1).		(10)
3.03	$Bh\bar{u}$ (earth) originates from $\bar{a}pa$ in accordance with the text "They (viz. waters) created food" ($Ch\bar{a}nd$ 6,2.4)		(11)
3.031	The word "food" in the above text denotes <i>bhū</i> because the subject matter is concerning creation of the <i>Mahābhūtas</i> and also because its colour is said to be		(12)
0.1	as black (denoting food) in Chānd 6.4.1.		(12)
3.1	Siddhānta The state of the stat		
	The paramapuruṣa is the creator of these effects, because of the texts "bahusyām" (may I be many) (Chānd 6.2.3) and "tad ātmānam svayam akuruta" (that itself	l	
	created itself) (Tait. 2.7)		(13)
3.2	The order of pralaya is the reverse of the said order of	f	
	sṛṣṭi.		(14)
3.3	The text etasmāj jāyate praņo manaḥ sarvendriyāṇi ca (Muṇḍ 2.1.3) does not contradict the above mentioned	1	
	order of creation, but shows that there is non-difference of the origin of knowledge, mind, the ether etc. from Brahman. In between the soul and the ether, the	1	
	"categories of unmanifest, mahat and ahankāra, im-		
	plied in other texts are also to be understood.		(15)
4.	The nature of the jiva	(1	6-52)
4.1	The designation of birth and death of the jiva is metaphorical and is dependent on the existence of the		(16)
4.11	body. The jivātmā does not originate because there is no text		(10)
1.11	The floating does not originate because there is no text	-	

	about its having an origin by nature. Besides the eternity of jīva is well known in Scripture. (<i>Katḥa</i> 2.18, <i>Katḥa</i> 5.13, <i>Svet</i> 4.5).	(17)
4.2	The ātman which has become an ego (aham artha bhūta) is a jñātā (knower).	(18
4.3	The jīva is aṇu (atom) because of the declaration of its utkrānti (departure) in Bṛh 4.4.2 gati (going) in Kauṣ 1.2. and āgati (coming) in Bṛḥ .4.4.6.	(19
4.31	Unlike <i>utkrānti</i> which is sometimes possible on the part of one who does not move as in the case of <i>grama svāmyatva</i> (rulership of a village) <i>gati</i> and <i>āgati</i> are possible only through one's own self.	(20
4.32	The text "sa vā eṣa mahāṇ" (Bṛh 4.4.22) refers to Paramātman and not to the jiva.	(21
4.33	The scripture declares the jiva as anu (Mund 3.1.9) and describes its measure as a hundredth part of the tip of a hair divided a hundred fold (Svet 5.9).	(22
4.34	The jiva, staying in one part of the body like a candanabindu (a drop of sandal paste) illumines the entire body. Hence it can experience pleasure, etc. over	
	the entire body.	(23
	The heart is the abode of the jiva.	(24
4.342	The illumination of the body (i.e. the experience of consciousness in the entire body) is due to the attribute (of knowledge) of the jiva, just like the light of a lamp in a room.	(25
4.343	The extending beyond of the <code>gunabhūtajñāna</code> of which the jiva is the <code>āśraya</code> (substratum) (Kaus 4.20) is proper as in the case of <code>gandha</code> (odour).	(26
4.344	Although there is aviśeṣa (non-distinction) of jīva and its jñāna as far as jñānatva is concerned, yet because of the teaching of pr.thaktva (separation) (Kauṣ 3.6), their dharmadharmibhāva (substratum and attribute re-	
The same	lationship) is appropriate.	(27
4.4	Just as the <i>prājāa</i> (intelligent one) is said to be Brahman because He possesses great attributes (i.e. Brahman is the one in whom there are great attributes) the ātman is said to be <i>nitya</i> (eternal) and <i>vibhu</i> (all pervading) (<i>Muṇḍ</i> 1.1.6). In the <i>dṛṣṭānta</i> (example) the <i>prajāa</i> great in Himself is great by His <i>guṇas</i> also, while in the case of the <i>dāṛṣṭānta</i> (exemplified) the jīva, though	
1.11	anu in size, is vibhu by reason of its guna.	(28)
4.41	The designation of the vibhutva of the jiva, due to its	

	long as the ātman does (Bṛh 4.3.30).	(29)
4.42	This jñāna is existent, even in the state of suṣupti (deep sleep) though it is manifested only in the jāgrat (waking) state, just as virility though existent in bālya (childhood)	(30)
4.43	is manifest in yauvana (youth) only. Since, in the sarvagatātmavāda, there will be the nitya (eternal) prasaṅga of perception (upalabdhi) or non-perception (anupalabdhi) or of bondage or of release, of the ātma, there must be a restriction with regard to one	(31)
4.5	or the other (of them). This ātman is a kartā because of the meaningfulness of the śāstra informing (us) about the upāya (means) of bhukti (enjoyment) and mukti (salvation) (Tait, Samhitā 2.5.5).	(32)
4.51	Also because of the teaching of his moving about in the body (<i>Bṛh</i> 2.1.18).	(33)
4.52	And of his taking the senses (Br.h 2.1.18).	(34)
4.53	And of his kartrtva (agentship) in the text "vijnānam yajnām tanute" (Tait 2.5). Here vijnānam means the jīva, not buddhi. In the latter case karaṇavibhakti (instrumental case) would have been used.	(35)
4.54	There is no restriction with regard to (his) action based on the obtainment of their fruits. (Ref. 4.43 above).	(36)
4.55	If buddhi had kartṛtva (agentship) its karaṇa śakti (instrumental power) would cease and would come to have kartṛśakti.	(37)
4.56	If the ātman is not the kartā there will result the absence of samādhi due to the kartītva of a mere acetana principle.	(38)
4.57	The ātman acts or does not act according to its own icchā (wish) like a carpenter (takṣa). In the kartṛṭva of the buddhi due to the absence of icchā, there will be absence of any alternatives (i.e. freedom of choice).	(39
4.58	The <i>kartṛṭva</i> of the jīva proceeds from the supreme cause (who has entered within the jīva) (<i>Tait. Ar</i> 3.11.12).	(40)
4.581	"But there is no fault of inequality". The supreme being taking into consideration the jīvakṛtakarmas (works done by the soul) makes it do good deeds (dharmādikamkarma) in another birth too because of the "meaningfulness etc. of injunctions and prohibi-	
	tions".	(41)
4.6	The jīva is a part (amsa) of Paramātman, because of its	

	designation of both bheda (Svet 1.9) and of abheda (Chānd 6.8.6). The Ātharvānikas read the dāśakitavāditvam (the nature of fishermen, gamblers	
	and the rest) of Brahman.	(42)
	Jīva is Brahmāmsaon account of the mantra "Pādo'sya visvabhūtāni (A foot of him are all beings) (RV. 10.90.3).	(43)
	Smṛti also supports the Brahmāmśatvam of the jiva (Gitā 15.7).	(44)
4.62	Though the jīva is an amśa of the Paramapuruṣa, the amśin does not experience sukhaduḥkha (pleasure and pain) just as prakāśa (light) etc. is devoid of the guṇadoṣas (virtue or vice) that come into their parts.	(45)
4.621	The smrti also supports the nityatva and nirgunatva of Paramātman and the moksabandhatva of the karmātman (Mbh. 12. 339. 14-15).	(46)
4.63	Although the jivas are equal on account of their being the ámsa of Brahman, yet injunction (<i>Tait Sam</i> 2.5.5.) and prohibition (<i>Tait Sam</i> 7.1.1.) are appropriate because of their connection with different bodies.	(47)
4.64	The souls are atomic by nature, in spite of their being amśa of vibhu (all pervasive being) and their having themselves the guṇas of vibhutva. Therefore there is no vyatikara (exchange) of Karmas.	(48)
4.65	Because of the consequence of the <i>vyatikara</i> , the <i>sarvagatātmavādas</i> of others like Kapila are fallacious indeed (<i>ābhāsā eva</i>).	(49)
4.651	Vyatikara is inevitable in spite of having recourses to adrṣṭa (the unseen principle) in the sarvagatātmavāda, because of the non-restriction with regard to the	(50)
1 652	adrṣṭa. There is no restriction even with regard to samkalpa	(50)
4.002	(decision) etc. such as "I shall do this, not that".	(51)
4.653	It cannot be argued that everything is consistent on account of the place of the <i>ātman</i> within its own body, because of the inclusion of the place of all the souls	
	therein.	(52)
(D) T	he Fourth Pāda	
1.	The origin of the sense organs	(1-21)
1.1	The indriyas (sense organs) originate like the ether (kha) etc.	(1)
1.11	Though the origin of $karaṇas$ (organs) is not mentioned (in $Tait\ 2.1$) yet it is impossible that their origin be	
10		193

	gauṇa as the majority of <i>sruti</i> texts designate such an origin, and because of the thesis concerning the knowledge of all through the knowledge of one (<i>Muṇḍ</i> 1.3.1).	(2)
1.10	2 The śruti about the udbhava of the indriyas is mukhya.	(3)
1.2	The prāṇas ⁸ originate like the kha (ether) etc. because	(0)
1.2	of the mention of vāk (speech), prāṇa and manas as	
	preceded by tejas, apa and anna (food) (Chand 6.4.4).	(4)
1.20) Pūrvapakṣa	
	The indriyas are seven (Bṛh 4.4.2).	(5)
1.2	1 Siddhānta	
	There are more than seven <i>indriyas</i> as is evident from	
	scripture (Brh 3.2.8), and they are specified as eleven	
and the	(Bṛh 3.9.4).	(6)
1.3	The prāṇas are atomic because of the śruti about their going out (Bṛh 4.4.2).	(7)
1.4	The śrestha, i.e. mukhya prāṇa (the chief vital breath)	(,)
1.4	(Chānd 5.1.1) originates like the Mahābhūtas (Mund	
	2.1.3).	(8)
1.4		
	but is the vāyu that has assumed a different avasthā	(0)
	(condition) (Mund 2.1.3).	(9)
1.4	2 The srestha (best) prāṇa is a viśeṣ́a upakaraṇa (special instrument) of the jīva like the cakṣu (eye) etc.	(10)
1.4	21The vidhāraṇam (holding up) of the body and the	(10)
	indriyas is the asadharanakaryam (the special func-	
	tion) of Prāṇa (Praśna 2.3).	(11)
1.45	22 Just as the bahuvrttimanas (mind having many modes),	
	the prāna also serves the jīva through its pañca vṛttis (five modes) like apāna etc.	(12)
1.4		(12)
1.1	departure.	(13)
1.5		,
	functions as inspired by devatās like Agni etc. (Ait	
1.0	1.2.4). There is a sva-svāmibhāva (master-servant) relation	(14)
1.6	between the jiva, who is the bhoktā and the indrigas	
	(Chānd 8.12.4).	(15)
1.6		(10)
	with the adhisthatrdevatās (presiding deities).	(16)
1.7	The indriyas are not vrttivisesas (special modes) of the sresthaprāṇa, but are different tattvas (entities) (Cf.	
	Mund 2.1.3)	(17)

1.71	The bheda of the śresthaprāṇa from them is declared (Bṛh 1.3.7) and because of the vailakṣaṇya (difference) of the indriyas, the apprehenders of the sense objects, from the śresthaprāṇa, the cause of the subsistence of	(10)
1.8	the body, the <i>indriyas</i> are separate entities. The <i>vyākaraṇam</i> (evolution) of <i>nāma</i> and <i>rūpa</i> is the work of the <i>Paradevatā</i> (supreme being) (<i>Chānd</i> 6.3.2,3) who made each of the three <i>devatās</i> tripartite.	(18)
1.81	The existence of the evolutes (kāryaṇi) of the bhūtas of teja, āpa and annain the body is known from scripture. (Chānd 6.5.1-3).	(20)
1.82	But they are regarded as different due to the preponderance of the parts (bhāgabhūyastvāt).	(21)
	ADHYĀYA THREE	
(A) T	he First Pāda	
1.	The ascent of the jiva to the orb of the moon	(1-7)
1.1	The jiva possessed of the vital breath (prāṇādimān) closely embraced by the sūkṣmabhūtas, (subtle elements), after discarding (the present) body, goes to another body as known from the text "Do you know	
	how in the fifth oblation water comes to have the speech of man?" (<i>Chānd</i> 5.3.3).	(1)
1.11	tion alone is due to its preponderance.	(2)
1.12	(The jīva) goes being closely embraced by the $bh\bar{u}tas\bar{u}ksmas$ (as known from the description) of going (gati) of the sense organs. (Brh 4.4.2).	(3)
1.13	The mention of the going of $v\bar{a}k$ etc. of the dead man into fire etc. ($Brh 3.2.13$) is only metaphorical ($bh\bar{a}kta$) — (while the going of the $pr\bar{a}na$ and $bh\bar{u}tas\bar{u}ksma$ is not	
1.14	metaphorial). The term <i>śraddhā</i> (reverence) (i.e. the object mentioned to be offered into the first fire in <i>Chānd</i> 5. 4.2) is to be	(4)
nn g	understood as $\bar{A}pa$ (water), because of the appropriateness of the introduction (upakrama).	(5)
1.15	Though jiva is not explicitly mentioned, the text esa somo rāja (Chānd 5.10.4) denotes the performers of "iṣṭāpūrta" (pious works) (Chānd 5.10.3).	(6)
1.16	The description of the mere performers of deeds i.e. those who are <i>anātmavids</i> as the food of gods (<i>Chānd</i> 5.10.4, <i>Bṛh</i> 1.4.10) is merely metaphorical (<i>bhāktam</i>).	(7)

2.	The fruits of karmas	(8-2	21)
	After the decay of the <i>karmas</i> , productive of fruits in the next world jiva descends in accordance with the <i>śruti(Chānd5</i> .10.7) and <i>smṛti(GDS</i> 11.29) texts in order to be born in high or low status.		(8)
2.2	Kārṣṇājini considers caraṇa (in the Chāndogya text (5.10.7) referred to above as denoting (upalakṣaṇa) not ācāraḥ (conduct) but karma.		(9)
2.21	Even in that case there is no anarthakyam (futility) of conduct because of the dependence of karma on conduct.		10)
2.22	Badari thinks carana means good and bad actions.	(11)
	Pūrvapaksa		
	Even the going to the world of moon, of the <i>dustas</i> (wicked) who are attached to the prohibited and averse to what is enjoined, is to be understood from the <i>Kaus</i>		
	1.2.	(12)
2.301	There are both the ascent to and the descent from the candramandala (orb of the moon) for them after they have experienced suffering in the abode of Yama (Katha 2.6, RV. 10.14.1)		13)
2.302	Parasara, and others declare (their) subjugation to Yama.		14)
2.303	The <i>smrtis</i> declare that there are seven hells (<i>narakas</i>) beginning with Raurava.	(15)
2.304	The existence of other "overlords" does not contradict their being subjugated to Yama, because in Raurava, etc, the overlords like Citragupta, etc. are under the control of Yama.		16)
2.31	Siddhānta		
	There is no going of the sinners (aniṣṭādikārins) to the moon, for, they who do not go through the path of the gods ($Ch\bar{a}nd5.10.1$) i.e. the path of $vidy\bar{a}$ and through the path of the Fathers ($Ch\bar{a}nd5.10.3$) i.e. the path of Karma, but go to a third place, thereby this world is not filled up. ($Ch\bar{a}nd5.10.8$).		17)
2.32	In this third place there is no need for the <i>pañcam āhut</i> (fifth oblation) for the origination of the body of those who do not perform sacrifices. (<i>Chānd</i> 5.10.8).		18)
2.33	Smṛṭi declares the origination of bodies without the pañcam āhuti for even those who performed sacrifices, etc. as in the case of Dhṛṣṭadyumna.	John J.	19)

2.34	Since the utpatti(origin) of svedaja (moisture born) and udbhija (plant born) among the four categories of beings, without even the union of male and female is seen, there is no need of the pancam āhuti.	(20)
2.34	The term "udbhija" in Chānd 6.3.1. includes the svedaja also, so that there is no setting aside (hāni) the four categorization of beings.	(21)
3.	The process of descent	22-27)
3.1	The jiva, on its way of return, does not actually become $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$, etc. (Chānd 5.10.5-6), but only becomes similar (sādrsyam) to them, because that is reasonable.	(22)
3.11	The association of the jiva with various entities beginning with $\bar{a}k\bar{a}\pm a$ and ending with rain is only for a short time, while the association with rice is more difficult to escape (<i>Chānd</i> 5.10.6).	(23)
3.12	The statement of their being born as rice, etc. already being occupied by other $k setraj \bar{n}a$ (soul) ($Ch \bar{a}nd 5.10.6$) is to be understood as a mere association ($sa \dot{m}s arg a$) with them as with the $\bar{a}k \bar{a} \dot{s} a$, etc.	(24)
3.2	The karma like the Jyotiṣtoma, etc. though associated with himsā (killing of animals) (leading to immobile births like that of the rice etc.) is not aśuddha) (impure) because of the scriptural injunctions.	(25)
3.3	The (jīva's) becoming rice is just as its becoming one who performs the act of generation mentioned in the scripture (<i>Chānd</i> 5.10.6).	(26)
3.4	Having depended on the $yoni$ it becomes $\'sar \bar{i} r i n$ (embodied).	(27)
(B) T	he Second Pāda	
1.	Various states like dream etc. experienced by the jiva	(1-10)
1.0	Pūrvapakṣa	
	In the sphere of dream the creation of objects like $ratha$ (Chariot) etc. ($Brh4.3.10$) is made by the jiva ($Brh4.3.9$).	(1)
1.01	Some speak of the jīva in the dream state to be the $kart\bar{a}$ of desires in the form of sons etc. ($Katha$ 5.8).	(2)
1.1	Siddhānta	
	The Satyasamkalpa, (true resolve) Sarvajña (omniscient) Parameśvara is the creator of the wonderful objects like ratha etc. but not jīva, whose	

	satyasamkalpatva, etc. is not fully manifested in the baddhāvasthā (state of bondage).	(3)
1.12	Since dreams are indicative of future good or evil (<i>Chānd</i> 5.2.9), <i>Ait. Ar.</i> 3.24), the Paramātman alone is the maker of the dream chariots etc.	(4)
1.13	The (attributes of) satyasamkalpatva, etc, of the jiva remain hidden in the baddhāvasthā (state of bondage) in accordance with the karma of the jiva through the wish of the Parameśvara (Śvet 6.16).	(5)
1.131	This obscuration (tirobhāva) takes place due to the association with avidyā.	(6)
1.2	The susupti (deep sleep) also takes place in the <i>Paramātman</i> alone. In this state the jīva after entering into the vein and the pericardium of the heart rests in the Highest Self. (<i>Chānd</i> 8.6.3, 2.1.19, 2.1.17).	(7)
1.21	Therefore the declaration of the rising from <i>Parameśvara</i> in the text "Sata āgamya" (Chānd 6.10.2) is reasonable.	(8)
1.22	The same jiva, who was asleep arises so that remembering the work half done on the previous day, it does the (other) half on the following day in accordance with the scriptural declaration (<i>Chānd</i> 6.9.2) and injunctions (<i>Maitri</i> 6.3.6, <i>Bṛh</i> 1.4.7).	(9)
1.3	Mūrcchā, (swoon) which is different (atirikta) from the state of susupti, etc, is the half attainment of death (maranārdhasampatti).	(10)
2.	Brahman is Ubhayalingam (possessed of double characteristics)	1-22)
2.1	As already proved (Saurabha 1.2.8) the respective dosas of the jiva do not pertain to the sarvāntarvarti (abiding	IT (S
	within all) Paramātman, even due to the place (sthānato'pi) as he is not subject to karma, because everywhere Brahman is stated to be endowed with both nirdoṣatva (free from all defect) and	0.
	svābhāvikaguṇātmakatva (endowed with all auspicious qualities.	(11)
2.11	Unlike in the case of the jīva, to whom, though really apahatapāpman, the doṣas due to the connection with the body pertain, there is no text designating doṣas to the antaryāmin, (on the contrary) there is (the designation of his) immortality (Bṛh 3.7.3).	(12)
2.12	Moreover, followers of "some" branches (of Vedic tradition) teach that one of these two eats the sweet berry.	

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	and the other, without eaung, looks on, (Mund 3.1.1, Svet. 4.6, RV 1.164.20).	(13)
2.13	Since Brahman, who is the pradhānahetu (the principle agent) of the nāma and rūpa (Chānd 6.3.2) is not even touched by the odour of doṣa as he is not the bhoktr of the svotpādya (to be created by himself) nāmarūpas he is "without form" (arūpavat).	(14)
2.2	Brahman is <i>ubhayalingam</i> ⁹ (i.e. possessed of two-fold characteristics) — untouched by darkness and possessed of light, on account of the <i>avaiyarthya</i> (not devoid of meaning) of the text "ādityavarṇam tamasaḥ parastāt (of the colour of the sun, beyond darkness) (Gītā8.9) (Svet 3.8, Vājasaneya Saṃhitā 31.18, Tait. Ar. 3.131.	(15)
2.21	Whenever a text states that much as its real meaning only, then indeed it is to be known as <i>avaiyarthya</i> ¹⁰ (non-meaningless).	(16)
2.22	Some of the upaniṣadic texts (Chānd 8.7.1, 8.7.3, Śvet 16.19, Chānd 8.1.5) and Smṛṭi (Cf Gitā 15.18, 10.18, 10.42) prove that Brahman is Ubhayalingam.	(17)
2.3	Brahman, though <i>sarvagatam</i> , is <i>nirdoṣa</i> on account of His <i>ubhayaliṅgatva</i> , as expressed through the <i>upamā</i> of the <i>sūrya</i> within the water receptacles.	(18)
2.40	Pūrvapakṣa	
	The <i>dṛṣṭānta</i> (example of the <i>sūrya</i>) is not the point because unlike the water which is apprehended to be remote from the sun, there is no such apprehension of the <i>sthāna</i> (place) (i.e. jīva) from the <i>aṃśin</i> (whole) (i.e. <i>Paramātman</i>).	(19)
2.41	Siddhānta	
	The intended portion (vivaksitāmsa) of the dṛṣṭānta denies the participation (bhāktvam) in the increase and the decrease of the sthānas (the places i.e. souls and the world) by the sthānin (the Lord of the places) on account of His antarbhāva (inner existence).	(20)
2.42	And because (expressions like) "a lion like boy" is seen in ordinary life.	(21)
2.43	The text <i>neti neti</i> (<i>Bṛh</i> 2.3.6) denies, not the <i>mūrttāmūrttarūpam</i> (the corporeal and the incorporeal forms) of Brahman but His <i>etāvattyam</i> (so muchness) (<i>Bṛh</i> 2.3.6) ¹¹ .	(22)
3.	Brahman is revealed in perfect meditation (2	3-26)
3.1	The śāstra speaks of Brahman as avyakta in the text "na cakṣusā gṛhyate nāpi vācā" (Muṇḍ 3.1.8).	(23)
		199

3.2	But he is revealed (vyajyate) in Bhaktiyoga i.e. ananyābhakti i.e. dhyāna, in accordance with Śruti (Muṇḍ 3.1.8) and Smṛti (Gītā 11.54).	(24)
3.21	The darśana of Brahman results from the repetition of the upāya consisting (lakṣaṇa) of samrādhana (perfect meditation), just as the sūrya, agni, etc. are manifested through the repetition of the sādhana by those who	
	long for them.	(25)
3.22	When (the jiva) has the sakṣātkāra (direct intuition) of Brahman, it attains (yāti) sāmyam (similarity) with Him, as made known in the scripture (Muṇḍ 3.1.3).	(26)
4.	The bhedābheda relation between Brahman and the created world (2	7-30)
4.1	The universe, consisting of the corporeal and the incorporeal, abides in its own cause, viz. Brahman, in a relation of difference and non-difference, on account	
	of the designation of both difference and non-difference like the case of the serpent (ahi) and the coil (kuṇḍala).	(27)
4.2	Such a <i>(bhedābheda)</i> relation between jīva and Puruṣottama is to be known as in the case of <i>prabhā</i>	
	(light) and tadvat (i.e. its substratum). It is not to be supposed on the basis of "ato'nantena" (Saurabha 3.2.26) that there is a kevala bheda (absolute difference) (between Brahman and the jīva).	(28)
4.3	As explained earlier (Saurabha 2.1.25) the absence of doṣas like kṛṭṣna prasakti (consequence of entire transformation) is to be understood.	(29)
4.31	There is no connection of any dosa with Brahman in accordance with the text "na lipyate lokaduḥkhena (He is not smeared with the misery of the world.) (Katḥa	(20)
	5.11).	(30)
5.	There is no reality higher than Brahman	31-41)
5.0	Pūrvapakṣa	
	There is some <i>tattvam</i> (reality) higher than Brahman because in the scripture there are the designations of bridge (<i>Chānd</i> 8.4.1), of measure (<i>Chānd</i> 3.18.2), of connection (<i>Praśna</i> 6.1) and of difference (<i>Śwet</i> 3.9-10) ¹² .	(31)
5.1	Siddhānta	
	There is nothing whatsoever higher than <i>Parameśvara</i> , the <i>jagatkāraṇa</i> ; (His) designation as the <i>setu</i> (bridge) is due to the fact that He keeps the world apart.	(32)

5.11	The designation of <i>unmāna</i> (measure) is for the sake of <i>upāsana</i> . It is for this reason that Brahman is designated as having feet (<i>Chānd</i> 3.18.1,2).	(33)
5.12	The thinking of the <i>aparimita</i> (unlimited) as the <i>parimita</i> (limited) is reasonable due to the <i>sthānaviśeṣa</i> (speciality of place) as in the case of <i>prakāśa</i> (light) etc.	(34)
5.13	There is no other <i>tattva</i> (besides Brahman) inspite of the designation of a relation because He Himself leads (the <i>upāsakas</i>) to His own attainment.	(35)
5.14	On account of the designation of difference (bheda) in the text "tato yad uttarataram" (that which is beyond that) (Śvet 3.10), it cannot be said that there is another tattvam besides Brahman because of the negation in	
	the text "yasmātparam nāparam asti kiñcit" (Śvet 3.9).	(36)
5.2	The sarvagatatvam (all-pervasiveness) of Brahman is confirmed by the texts like "tenedam pūrņam puruṣeṇa sarvam" (Svet 3.9) "Brahmaivdam sarvam" etc.	(37)
5.3	Therefore Brahman alone is the giver of the respective fruits accruing to the individuals in accordance with their particular duties.	(38)
5.31	Śruti speaks of Him as the (giver of wealth) (Br.h4.4.24)	(00)
	and as the cause of bliss (Tait 2.7).	(39)
5.32	Pūrvapakṣa Jaimini thinks that because of the texts like yajeta	
	svargakāmaḥ (one desirous of heaven should perform sacrifices) (Tait Saṁ 2.5.5.) it is reasonable that dharma (religious merit) is the cause of phala (fruits) as in the	(40)
5.321	case of kṛṣi (tilling) etc. Siddhānta	(40)
	But the <i>Vedācārya</i> on the basis of scripture (<i>Praśna</i> 3.7, <i>Katḥa</i> 2.23, <i>Muṇḍ</i> 3.2.3) considers that <i>Paramātman</i> alone is the giver of fruits.	EAL.
	aione is the giver of fruits.	(41)
(C) 1	The Third Pāda	
1.	The identity of vidyās	(1-5)
1.1	The <i>upāsana</i> (meditation) though mentioned in many places, is one only because of the <i>aviśeṣa</i> (non-difference) of the injunction, etc.	(1)
1.11	The repetition (punarukti) of some of the vidyās in different scriptures is not because of the difference of vidyās but because of the difference of readers	-0
	(pratipattrbheda) and for the sake of making the topic clearer.	(2)

1.12	The mention of <i>śirovratam</i> (head-rite) in the text of Atharvana (Mund 3.2.10) as a pre-requisite for Brahmavidyādoes not show the bheda of the vidyābut that this rite is a subsidiary part of the study of the Veda, which restricts the adhikārins of Vedic study	
	(Muṇḍ 3.2.11).	(3)
1.13	The text "sarve vedā yat padam āmananti (Katḥa 2.15) proves that the vidyās are identical.	(4)
1.14	Since there is identity (aikya) of <i>vidyās</i> their special features are to be combined because of the <i>abheda</i> (non-difference) of their <i>prayojana</i> (purpose).	(5)
2.	The Udgitha vidyas are different	(6-9)
2.0	Pūrvapakṣa	
	Though the Udgitha (i.e prāṇa) is said to be a kartā in the Vājasaneyakatext (Brh 1.3.7) and an object (karma) in the Chāndogya text (1.2.7) they are the same on account of the aviseṣa of the introduction (upakrama) (Brh 1.3.1, Chand 1.2.1).	(6)
2.1	Siddhānta	
	There is a bheda of vidyās because of the bheda of the prakarana (introduction), for, in Chāndogya (1.1.1, 1.2.1) the Praṇava, which is an avayava of the Udgitha is enjoined to be viewed as the prāṇa while in Vājasaneyaka (Brh 1.3.1) the entire Udgītha is enjoined. (Similarly) the injunction that the Udgītha is to be viewed as the golden person (Chānd 1.6.9) is different from the injunction that it is to be viewed as qualified by the attributes of being higher than the high and so on (Chānd 1.9,2).	(7)
2.12	There cannot be identity of <i>vidyās</i> just because they have the same name, for, there may be an identity of name (<i>sañjñaikatvam</i>) but a difference in the subject matter as in the case of the term " <i>Agnihotra</i> "	(8)
2.2	Since the <i>Praṇava</i> is mentioned in the beginning of <i>Chāndogya</i> to be the <i>upāsya</i> (object to be meditated) in all the <i>Udgītha vidyās</i> it is consistent that the <i>Udgītha</i> mentioned in the middle of the text (<i>Chānd</i> 1.2.1) also really imply the <i>Praṇava</i> .	(9)
3.	The essential attributes of the vidyās are to be combined everywhere	10-25)
3.1	In the <i>Chāndogya</i> (5.1.13) and in <i>Vājasaneyaka</i> (<i>Bṛh</i> 6.1.7) under the dialogue of the sense organs <i>Prāṇa</i> ,	

	possessed of the attributes of the oldest (jyaiṣṭḥya) and the best (śraiṣṭḥya) is described as the upāṣya to which vāk, etc. designated as the richest (vasiṣṭhatva) etc. is ascribed. But in Kauṣitakī (2.14) these attributes of vāk etc. are mentioned but not attributed to $Prāṇa$, yet they are to be taken in relation to $Prāṇa$ because they are identical everywhere and vāk, etc. are under the control of $Prāṇa$, the cause of their seniority and excellence.	(10
3.2	Because of the <i>abheda</i> of the <i>guṇin</i> (substratum) everywhere the <i>guṇas</i> (attributes) like <i>ānanda</i> (bliss) etc are to be inserted in all the <i>paravidyās</i> (i.e. meditations on the Highest).	(1)
3.21	But the attributes like <code>priyaśirastva</code> (having joy for the head) etc. do not constitute the <code>svarūpaguṇa</code> (essential attribute) of the Highest because if there be difference of the limbs in Brahman there will result increase and decrease on the part of Brahman.	(12
3.22	But the <i>guṇas</i> like <i>aṇanda</i> , etc. are to be combined because of the <i>aikya</i> (identity) of the <i>guṇin</i> everywhere.	(1:
3.23	The designation like "tasya priyam eva śiraḥ" (Tait, 2.5) is for the sake of meditation (anucintana) since there is no other purpose (prayojana) for it.	(1-
3.231	The designation of <i>śira</i> (head) and <i>pakṣa</i> (wings), etc. is for the sake of meditation (anudhyāna) since they cannot belong to the internal self (<i>Tait</i> 2.5).	(1:
3.232	By the term <i>anyo'ntara ātma</i> (another internal self) (<i>Tait</i> 2.5) the <i>Paramātman</i> alone is to be understood as in the text ātma vā idam eka evāgra āsit (Ait Ar. 2.43) because of the <i>anandamayaviṣaya</i> in the subsequent text (<i>Tait</i> 2.6).	(10
3.24	The ātman in ātmā'nandamaya, does not refer to the prāṇa, but to the Paramātman, though in some previous cases the term ātman may refer to the prāṇa etc. because there the prāṇa etc. are viewed as the Paramātman.	(1'
3.3.	The meditation on water as the dress of <i>prāṇa</i> (Śat. Br 14.9, 215) is only a re-mention of the rinsing of the mouth with water, which is duly established by <i>Smrtis</i> and ācāra (custom) ¹³ .	/2
3.4	Since the Sāṇḍilyavidyā (though) taught (in two places) in the branch of Vājasaneyins (i.e.) in the Agnirahasya (Sat Br 10.6.3.2) and in Brḥadāraṇyaka (5.6.1) is identical, just like the vidyās, though mentioned in	(1:

0.5	tity of <i>vedya</i> (objects meditated on). The <i>vidyās</i> being the same, their special features are to be combined together.	(19)
3.5	Pūrvapakṣa	
	(In that case) the two names in the text "His secret name is Day (tasyopaniṣad ahara Brh 5.5.3) in reference to the presiding deities and "His secret name is I' (tasyopaniṣad aham Brh 5.5.4) in reference to the ātman are to be combined because of the connection with the same $vidy\bar{a}$ through the introductory passage, (upakrama) i.e. "satyam $Brahma$ (Brh 5.5.1).	(20)
3.51	Siddhānta	
	Because of the difference of place such combination is not appropriate.	(21)
3.52	There is absence of combination of the $gunas$ of the $aksistha$ (the one situated in the eye) and of the $\bar{a}dityastha$ (the one situated in the sun) in the text. "The form of this one is the very same as the form of that	(6'0)
	one" (Chānd 1.7.5).	(22)
3.53	Due to the <i>sthānabheda</i> there is no combination, in the other <i>vidyās</i> , of the attributes like holding together, pervading the heaven, mentioned in <i>Tait. Br</i> 2.4.7.10.	(23)
3.54	Even in the <i>Puruṣavidyā</i> recorded in <i>Chāndogya</i> (3.16.1) and in <i>Taittirīyaka</i> (<i>Tait Ar</i> 10.64) there is a <i>bheda</i> of the <i>vidyā</i> s since the details mentioned in one place (<i>Chānd</i> 3.16.1) are not recorded in the other.	(24)
3.55	There is no combination of mantras like "Pierce all, pierce the heart" etc. and of the sacrificial acts like Pravargya ¹⁴ etc. (Śat, Br. 14.1.1.1) with vidyā because of the bhinnatva of the vidyā from the objects of	
	"piercing" etc.	(25)
4.	Abandoning the merits and demerits at departure (2	6-32)
4.1	The taking up (upāyana), consisting of receiving the merits (puṇya) and the demerits (pāpa) (Kaus 1.4) (of	
	the dead) is included in their abandonment (hāni) consisting in the getting rid of them by the vidvān	
	(Muṇḍ 3.13), because upāyana is supplementary to hāni,	(26)
4.2	At the time of the departure from the body (the jīva) completely abandons pāpa and punya because there is no more experience (bhoga) to be crossed after the	3.5

separation from the body (Chānd 8.12.1, 8.3.4, 8.12.3).

different branches, are identical because of the iden-

	The decay of the <i>karma</i> , which has actually taken place at the time of the <i>dehaviyoga</i> is recorded to take place after crossing the river Virajā (Kauṣ 1.4).	(27)
4.3	The friend (suhrt) and the enemy (durhrt) get respectively the punya and the pāpa of the vidvān.	(28)
4.31	The parting of the good and bad deeds is meaningful because if the good deeds follow (the $vidv\bar{a}n$) then there will be rebirth ($\bar{a}vrtti$) after the enjoyment of their fruits.	(29)
4.4	Though there is decay of all the karmas and of the sthūlasarīra of the Brahmopāsaka at the time of śarīraviyoga, an implicit relation to the body is found in the scripture (Chānd 8.3.4, 8.12.3) which shows that he continues to retain the sūkṣma śarīra in order to go to the viśiṣṭasthāna (where) the vidvān attains Brahmabhāva.	(30)
4.5	Since the going (gati) mentioned in the <i>Upakośala</i> ¹⁵ vidyā and the <i>Pañcāgnividyā</i> ¹⁶ , etc. belong to all the <i>Brahmopāsinas</i> , there is no contradiction of the <i>śruti</i> (<i>Chānd</i> 5.10.1) and <i>smṛti</i> ($Gita$ 8.24) texts.	(31)
4.6	But there is stay for Vasistha etc. so long as their office (adhikāram) lasts, owing to the influence of the karmas, the fruit of which is their office.	(32)
5.	Meditation on Brahman (3	3-39)
5. 5.1	Because of the sameness of the chief imperishable Brahman everywhere, there must be the inclusion of the concepts like asthūlatva (non-grossness) etc. connected with the akṣara(imperishable) Brahman(Bṛh	
	Because of the sameness of the chief imperishable Brahman everywhere, there must be the inclusion of the concepts like asthūlatva (non-grossness) etc.	
	Because of the sameness of the chief imperishable Brahman everywhere, there must be the inclusion of the concepts like asthūlatva (non-grossness) etc. connected with the akṣara (imperishable) Brahman (Bṛh 3.8.8.) in all Brahma vidyās because they form an integral part of an investigation into Brahman. Since the sarvotkṛṣṭa (best of all) Brahman, as possessed of ānanda (bliss) etc. characterized by asthūlatva is meditated on the features of ānanda, etc. are to be included everywhere, while sarvakarmatva etc. is to be	3-39)
5.1	Because of the sameness of the chief imperishable Brahman everywhere, there must be the inclusion of the concepts like asthūlatva (non-grossness) etc. connected with the akṣara (imperishable) Brahman (Bṛh 3.8.8.) in all Brahma vidyās because they form an integral part of an investigation into Brahman. Since the sarvotkṛṣṭa (best of all) Brahman, as possessed of ānanda (bliss) etc. characterized by asthūlatva is meditated on the features of ānanda, etc. are to be	3-39)
5.15.115.2	Because of the sameness of the chief imperishable Brahman everywhere, there must be the inclusion of the concepts like asthūlatva (non-grossness) etc. connected with the akṣara (imperishable) Brahman (Bṛh 3.8.8.) in all Brahma vidyās because they form an integral part of an investigation into Brahman. Since the sarvotkṛṣṭa (best of all) Brahman, as possessed of ānanda (bliss) etc. characterized by asthūlatva is meditated on the features of ānanda, etc. are to be included everywhere, while sarvakarmatva etc. is to be comprised only where mentioned. The phrase "so te ātma sarvāntara" in the answer to the question of Uṣasta (Bṛh 3.4.1) is not (a reference to) the pratyagātman but is the mukhya sarvāntaryāmin as in the case of the answer to Kahola, for, a repetition of question and answer just as in sadvidyā (Chānd 6.1.7, 6.8.7) is reasonable in order to demonstrate that the object to be known passes beyond hunger, etc. (Bṛh	(33) (34)

the Para, as distinguished (vyāvrtta) from the jīva, as the hetu of prāṇana (breathing) of all prāṇis, just as Uṣasta has to make like Kahola an investigation into Brahman as beyond hunger, etc, so that Brahman becomes vyāvrttam (distinguished) from the jīva, for, the same sarvātman is the upāsya (object to be worshipped) in both the cases, just as in sadvidyā all the answers specify one and the same sadbrahman.

(36)

5.3 (In the sadvidyā) He alone, who is previously denoted by the term satya (true) (Chānd 6.3.2, 6.8.6) is repeated in Chānd 6.9.1. The attributes like satyam (true) etc. mentioned in the first version thus "aitadātmyamidam sarvam tat satyam" (Everything has that for itself, that is true) (Chānd 6.8.7) is to be inserted in all the versions.

(37)

5.4 The Paramātman is presented as the upāsya, possessing the attributes of Satyakāmatva (having true desires) etc. in Chāndogya (8.1.1-5) and Vasitva (controller) etc. in the Vājasaneyaka (Bṛh4.4.22). Those attributes are to be mutually included (in the meditation) because of the sameness of the vidyās and of the āyatana (abode) in both the cases.

(38)

5.5 The negation "neha nānā" (there is no plurality here) (Bṛh 4.4.19, Katḥa 4.11) refers only to the abrahmātmaka padārthas (things not having Brahman for their essence) and does not deny the attributes like satyakāmatva etc.

(39)

6. Through Brahmopāsana one attains his own perfection

(40)

When one attains Brahman and is complete in his own form (*Chānd* 8.3.4) having the stated marks, by means of *Brahmopāsana* he becomes a self ruler (*Chānd* 7.2.2.) and has the freedom of movement in all the worlds (*Chānd* 7.25.2).

(40)

- 7. Upasanas based on the subsidiary part of karmas (41-50)
- 7.1 There is aniyama (non-restriction) of the inclusion of the upāsanas based on the subsidiary parts of sacrificial actions (karmāngāsraya) such as Udgīthopāsana (Chānd 1.1.1.) in those karmas because an anupāsaka (non-worshipper) is also a kartā of the karma (i.e. sacrificer) etc. by means of Praṇava a subsidiary part of the sacrificial works (karmāngabhūta) (Chānd 1.1.10. The upāsana on the karmāngas need not be inserted

	is both different from that of the <i>karmas</i> (<i>Chānd</i> 1.1.10) and is superior to it.	(41)
7.2	During the meditations on the <i>gunas</i> (attributes), the meditations on the <i>dahara</i> (the small) ¹⁷ , the <i>gunin</i> (the sub-stratum) (Cf. <i>Daharavidyā in Chānd</i> 8.1.1, 8.6.2, 8.6.5) are to be repeated on account of their being qualified by those <i>guṇas</i> as in the case of the offering of <i>Purodāśa</i> (sacrificial cake on eleven potsherds) to Indra (<i>Tait Sam</i> 2.3.6).	(42)
7.3	(Just as the karmāngāśrayopāsanas are not be taken as karmāngas, the fires also are not be taken as karmāngas).	
	The fires piled by the mana, vāk, prāṇa, cakṣu, śrotra (ear) karma, agni etc. (Śat Bṛ 10. 5.31) are simply the aṅgabhūta of sacrifice consisting of meditation on account of the abundance of indicatory mark (liṅga) (Śat Br 10.5.3.3, 10.5.3.12 etc) which is stronger than the prakaraṇa (context) (Jaimini sūtra 3.3.14).	(43)
7.30		(40)
	(The fires piled up by mana) may be a vikalpa (alternative) of the same preceding kriyāmaya (consisting in action) fire (Sat. Br 10.5.3.1) i.e. they are kriyārūpa (of the form of action) as in the case of the mental vessel (Ap. SS. 21.10.2) on acount of the prakaraṇa, (context) which is stronger than the linga (indicatory mark) in the arthavāda (descriptive) portion.	(44)
7.30	l Also because the <i>vīryam</i> (power) of the former fire is transferred to them (Śat. Br 10. 3.3.11), they are <i>kriyārūpa</i> (the form action).	(45)
7.31		
	They are of the nature of meditation (<i>vidyātma</i>) alone, because of the specification that they are piled up by <i>vidyā</i> alone (<i>Śat Bṛ</i> 10.5.3.12) and their being the <i>aṅga</i> of <i>Vidyāmayakratu</i> (sacrifice consisting of meditation) is clear from <i>Śat Br</i> 10.5.3.3.	(46)
7.311	There is no bādha of their being the aṅga of the vidyāmayakratu because of the greater force of śruti, (direct scriptural statement) (Śat Br. 10.5.3.12) liṅga, (indicatory mark) (Śat Br 10.5.3.12) and vākya (synthetical connection) (Śat Br. 10.5.3.12) over the	(47)
7.32	prakaraṇa (context) (Jaimini sūtra 3.3.14). The vidyamayakratu is different (pṛṭhak) like any other vidyās like the Śāṇḍilyavidyā, on account of the in-	(+1)

in those karmas regularly because the fruit of upāsana

	separable adjuncts (anubandhas) like hymns (stotra) recitations (śāstra) ¹⁸ (Śat Br. 10.5.3.3) direct scriptural statements (śruti) etc.	(48)
7.33	In spite of the similarity of the <i>vidyāmayakratu</i> to the "mental vessel" they are not the <i>anga</i> of the <i>kriyāmayakratu</i> because of their <i>vidyārūpatva</i> (form of meditation) just like the difference between the <i>agni</i> (fire), the <i>ādityapuruṣa</i> (person in the sun) and <i>mrṭyu</i> (death) (in Śat Br. 10.5.2.3, Brh 3.2.10) remains in spite of their resemblance (<i>Chānd</i> 5.4.1).	(49)
7.34	Also on account of the immediately following text ($\acute{S}at$ $Br.$ 10. 5.4.1) and the numerosity of the details the fires piled up by mind are the $anga$ of the $vidy\bar{a}mayakratu$.	(50)
8.	The soul is to be meditated on as in its freed state (5	1-52)
8.10	Pūrvapakṣa	
	At the time of upāsana, the pratyagātman is to be meditated on as in its state of bondage (baddhāvasthā) because of the existence of such an ātman in the body at that time.	(51)
8.11	Siddhānta	
	At the time of the <i>sādhanā</i> (meditation) the <i>pratyag</i> ātman is to be meditated on in its freed state (<i>muktākāra</i>) because in <i>mukti</i> , (the <i>upāsaka</i>) is to become of such a form (<i>rūpa</i>), just as one attains <i>Paramātman</i> in accordance with the <i>dhyāna</i> (meditation).	(52)
9.	Upāsana mentioned in one branch can be applied to another (5	3-54)
9.1	The upāsana connected with the subsidiary parts of Udgītha (Chānd 1.1.1) is not restricted to their own branches, but connected to all the branches of each Veda, on account of the non-specification of the sruti	
9.2	about the <i>Udgitha</i> etc.	(53)
9.2	There is no contradiction in applying <i>upāsana</i> mentioned in one place to another.	(54)
10.	Samagropāsana is more effective	(55)
	In the <i>Vaiśvānaravidyā</i> the <i>samagropāsana</i> (meditation on the aggregate) is glorified (<i>Chānd</i> 5.12.2) as in the case of a single performance of <i>Paurṇamāsa</i> sacrifice together with the subsidiary parts.	(55)
	one you will be my herealth and non tement to serve	£ 7
11.	Diversity of vidyās (5	6-58)

11.	1 There is diversity of Śāṇḍilyavidyās etc. on account of the difference of śabda etc. regarding them.	(56)
11.:	There is anusthanavikalpa (option of performance) (with regard to the various Brahmavidyās) on account of their avisistaphalatva (non-distinctions of result).	(57)
11.	There is no restriction with regard to anuṣṭḥāna (of meditation) having a different phala than Brahmaprāpti (i.e. the other anusṭḥānas are performed according to each one's need because each one of these anusṭḥanas has its own respective phala).	(58)
12.	Vidyās based on karmāngas need not always be included in those karmas (see Saurabha 3.3.41) (5	9-64)
12.) Pūrvapakṣa	
	Vidyās like Udgīthavidyā which are based on karmāṅgas have a subordinate nature (aṅgabhāva) to karma, on account of numerous indicatory marks.	(59)
12.0	Ol And because of the teaching of their regular inclusion (in the <i>karmas</i>) in the texts like " <i>Udgītham upāsīta</i> " (let one meditate on the <i>Udgītha</i>). (<i>Chānd</i> 1.1.1).	(60)
12.0	22 And on account of the joint performance (sampādanam) of the praṇava and the Udgītha (Chānd 1.5.5).	(61)
12.0	3 And on account of the śruti concerning the commonness of their attributes (guṇasādhāraṇya) (Chānd 1.1.9).	(62)
12.	1 Siddhānta	
	There is no niyama (fixed rule) that the vidyās based on aṅgas (of kratu) are to be included in the kratus, just as the aṅgas themselves because (scripture) does not declare them (i.e. the Vidyās to be the aṅgas of kratus).	(63)
12.5	(i.e. meditates) thus protects the sacrifices, the sacrificer and all officiating priests" (<i>Chānd 4.7.10</i>) shows that there is no <i>niyama</i> that (these <i>vidyās</i>) are to be regu-	
	larly included (in the kratus).	(64)
(D)	The Fourth Pāda	
1.	Vidyā is independent of karma	1-17)
1.1	Bādarāyaṇa thinks that Brahman is obtained through vidyā (meditation) (Tait 2.1).	(1)
1.10) Pūrvapakṣa	
	Jaimini considers vidyā as a karmānga because it	

Therefore the <i>phalaśruti</i> (scriptural statement about fruits) is a mere <i>arthavāda</i> (glorification).	(2)
1.101 Also because of the conduct of Janaka, etc. as declared in the <i>śruti</i> (<i>Bṛh</i> 3.1.1).	(3)
1.102 And because of the śruti about the subserviency (upayogitva) of vidyā to karma (Chānd 1.1.10).	(4)
1.103 Also because the togetherness (sāhitya) of vidyā and karma is seen (Brḥ 4.4.2)	(5)
1.104 Also on account of the enjoinment (vidhāna) of karma for the one possessed of vidyā ¹⁹ (Chānd 8.15.1).	(6)
1.1041 And on account of the <i>niyama</i> (restriction) in the text only doing work here, let one desire to live a hundred years (<i>Īsā</i> 2).	(7)
1.11 Siddhānta	
The view of Bhagavan Bādarāyaṇa is that puruṣārtha (final goal of men) arises from vidyā (BS 3.4.1) because of the teaching (upadeśa) that the sarveśvara, sarvaniyantā, who is superior (adhika) to the jīva, the kartā, is the object to be known in the scripture (Bṛh	(0)
4.4.22, 3.9.26, <i>Tait</i> Ar 3.11.1.2, <i>Kaṭha</i> 2.15 etc). 1.111 There is also equal support for the <i>akarmāṅgatva</i> of	(8)
vidyā in the text "For what purpose shall we study, for what purpose shall we perform sacrifices".	(9)
1.12 The text "yad eva vidyayā karoti (Chānd 1.1.10) (See Saurabha 3.4.4) is not applicable to all the vidyās. (But refers only to the <i>Udgīthavidyā</i>).	(10)
1.13 In the text "vidyā and karma lay hold of him (Brh 4.4.4 vide Saurabha 3.4.5) a division (vibhāga) is to be known like the division of a hundred (coins) for the sake of a two fold phala (i.e. vidyā and karma lay hold of him for bringing about their own respective phalas).	(11)
1.14 The enjoining of karma (Chānd 8.15.1, vide Saurabha 3-46) is for the one who has read the Veda (adhyayana	(11)
mātravān).	(12)
1.15 Also the restriction (to <i>karma</i>) (<i>Saurabha</i> 3.4.7) does not necessarily refer to the <i>Vidvān</i> .	(13)
1.151 The allowing of <i>karma</i> to the <i>Vidvān</i> in the text "only doing work here" (<i>l̃śā</i> 2) is for the sake of eulogizing <i>vidyā</i> .	(14)
1.16 Therefore some designate the voluntary giving up of	
the life of a house-holder (gārhasthya) by the knower. (Bṛh 4.4.22).	(15)

1.18 The independence of vidyā is ascertained from the fact that vidyā arise, in the āśramas of "chastity" (ūrdhvaretaḥ) which are known from the texts like "there are three branches of religious duty" (Chānd	
	(17)
2. Life of chastity is enjoined by the scripture (18.	-20)
2.0 Pūrvapakṣa	
Jaimini considers that the text "trayodharmaskandhāḥ" (there are three branches of religious duty) (Chānd 2.13.1) is only a re-mention (anuvāda) of those stages (known in the smṛti) because of the absence of any	
injunctive word there. Also there are texts condemning the other stages (<i>Tait. Sam</i> 1.5.2).	(18)
2.1 Siddhānta	
Bādarāyaṇa considers that the state of chastity is to be followed because the equality of chastity with the gārhasthya is seen in the anuvākya.	(19)
	(10)
2.2 There is indeed a vidhi (concerning chastity) just as the	
vidhi about the holding above of the sacrifical faggot	(20)
vidhi about the holding above of the sacrifical faggot (samidham) (Ap.SS 9.11.8-9).	(20)
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5.	The subsidiaries of vidyā (2	5-39)
5.1	For those who are bound by chastity, $vidy\bar{a}$ is independent of kindling of fire (i.e. $yaj\bar{n}a$) etc. in accordance with the text $brahmanistho'mrtatvameti(Ch\bar{a}nd 2.23.1)$.	(25)
5.2	$Vidy\bar{a}$, for its origination, depends on all $karmas$ (Brh 4.4.2), which have become the means ($s\bar{a}dhanabh\bar{u}ta$) as one depends on a horse for going.	(26)
5.3	Though it is possible that $vidy\bar{a}$ originates through the $sv\bar{a}s$ amakarmas, yet a $Brahmajij\bar{n}$ $\bar{a}su$ must be endowed with s ama (calmness) $dama$ (self control) etc. on account of the $vidhi$ to practise them $(Brh\ 4.4.23)$.	(27)
5.4	The permission for all food (<i>Chānd</i> 5.2.1) is valid only in danger to life as seen in the <i>śruti</i> (<i>Chānd</i> 1.10.1-5).	(28)
5.41	Also because of the non-contradiction of the text "āhāra suddhau sattvasuddhih" (If there be purity of food, there is purity of life). (Chānd 7.26.2).	(29)
5.42	Smṛṭi supports such a view (Manu Smṛṭi 10.104, Gītā 5.10).	(30)
5.43	Therefore the text "tasmād brāhmaṇaḥ surām na pibet (Hence let not a Brahman drink wine) (Katha Sam 12.12) is to prevent wanton acting (yatheṣṭācāra).	(31)
5.5	Yajña, etc. which are aṅgas of vidyā are to be performed by an amumukṣu (one who does not desire for salvation) as an āśramakarma, because it is enjoined on him.	(32)
5.51	They are also to be performed by a <i>mumukṣu</i> because they are enjoined as <i>sahakāri</i> (auxiliary) of <i>vidyā</i> (<i>Brh</i> 4.4.22), for they can have a double purpose (Jaimini	(32)
	4.3.5).	(33)
	The same yajña etc. have a double purpose.	(34)
5.52	By the removal of sin, which is the cause of the overpowering of <i>vidyā</i> , through <i>yajā</i> etc. in accordance with the text "dharmeṇa pāpam apanudati" (By dharma one removes one's sins). (Mahānār 22.1) there	
	is no overpowering of vidyā.	(35)
5.6	Those who stand between the āśramas are also entitled to vidyā as in the case of Raikva etc. (Chānd 4.1.3).	(36)
5.61		(30)
1,35	(vidyānugraha) by means of japa etc (Manu Smṛti 2.87).	(37)
5.62	Also through the performance of the sādhanaviśeṣa in the previous birth too (Gītā 6.45).	(38)

5.63	Being within an āśrama is better than standing midway (Dakṣa Smṛṭi 1.10).	(39)
6.	The Naisthikabrahmacārin (4	0-43)
6.1	The giving up of the state of chastity (ūrdhvaretobhāva) is not allowed. This is also the view of Jaimini.	(40)
6.2	There is no possibility of a prāyaścitta (Jaimini 6.8.22) for a fallen Naisthika (Religious student of perpetual chastity) on account of its ineffectiveness in his case (Agni Purāṇa. 165.23a-24b).	(41)
6.3	Pūrvapakṣa	
	Some consider the deviation from the <i>brahmācarya</i> by the <i>Naisṭḥika</i> is a minor sin because of the non-specification of his chastity from that of a <i>upakurvāṇa</i> (a temporary religious student) as in the case of taking liquor.	(42)
6.31	Siddhānta	
	The (fallen) Naiṣṭḥika etc, irrespective of their fall from their stage of life being mortal or venial are outside the right to Brahmavidyā on account of the Smṛṭi (Agni Purāṇa 165-24b) and on account of śiṣṭācāra (the conduct of the good).	(43)
7.	The fruits of the karmāṅgāśrita upāsana belong to the yajamāna	4-45)
7.0	Pūrvapakṣa	
	Atreya thinks that the <i>upāsana</i> based on the <i>karmāṅgas</i> is performed by the <i>yajamāna</i> (sacrificer) on account of the <i>phalaśruti</i> (scriptural text) concerning the result attained (<i>Chānd</i> 1.1.10).	(44)
7.1	Siddhānta	
	The <i>phala</i> (result) of the <i>karmāngāśrita upāsana</i> performed by the <i>Rtvik</i> (officiating priest) (for he is bought for that) pertains to the <i>yajamāna</i> .	(45)
8.	Maunam is the third auxiliary of vidyā (4	6-49)
8.1	A third sahakāryakam, (auxiliary) distinguished from pāṇḍitva (learning) and bālya (child-like state) namely maunam(silence, asceticism) is enjoined (Bṛh 3.5.1) like yajāa, śama etc.	(46)
8.2	On account of the equality (sadbhāva) of the dharmas of all the āśramas, the concluding text about the householder (Chānd 8.15.1) shows (the obligatory nature of) all the dharmas.	(47)

8.3	Similarly the <i>upadeśa</i> (teaching) about <i>maunam</i> (asceticism) is to show (the obligatory nature of all the <i>dharmas</i> . (<i>Chānd</i> 2.23.1).	(48)
8.4	Without manifesting one's mahātmya etc. due to Pāṇḍitya let one remain in the bālya (child state) i.e. without any ahamkārabhāva.	(49)
	CONTRACTOR STATE OF THE STATE O	20
9.	로 제공의 발생 배가 없는 게임하게 되 <mark>어</mark> 었다. 경상을 통한 중요한 전환을 받는 다른 것은 사람들은 것이 되는 것이 있다. 그는 것이 없는 것이 없는 것이 없다.	50-51)
9.1	If there is no pratibandha (obstruction) there is the rise (janma) of vidyā in this world (aihikam) and if there is (any pratibandha), in the next world (āmuṣmikam) (Katḥa 6.18).	(50)
9.2	Thus there is non-restriction (aniyama) with regard to the phala i.e. mukti (Chānd 6.14.2).	(51)
	ADHYĀYA FOUR	
(A) T	The First Pada	
1.	The practice of meditation	(1-12)
1.1	The sādhanas (spiritual exercise) must be repeated more than once for the <i>Brahmadarśana</i> (direct vision of Brahman) (<i>Brh</i> 2.4.5, 4.5.6).	
1.11	The Smrti too supports such a view (Gitā 12.9).	(2)
1.2	The <i>Paramapurusa</i> is to be meditated on as one's own self (svasyātmatvena) as experienced and taught by the previous teachers (<i>Chānd</i> 3.14.3, <i>Brh</i> 3.4.1).	
1.21	The ātman is not to be searched in a symbol (pratīka) because that is not the ātman of the upāsitr (meditating devotee).	
1.211	The viewing of the mind etc. as Brahman is proper but not the other way, because of the superiority of Brahman.	
1.212	In the <i>upāsana</i> of <i>Udgūtha</i> etc. the concepts (<i>matayaḥ</i>) of the sun (<i>āditya</i>) etc. are to be "super imposed" (<i>kartavyaḥ</i>) (<i>Chānd</i> 1.3.1), because of the superiority of the <i>āditya</i> etc.	
1.3	One must practise <i>upāsana</i> sitting only because meditation is possible only for him.	(7)
1.31	Because of the <i>dhyānarūpatva</i> (contemplative nature) of <i>upāsana</i> .	(8)
1.32	Also because the verb "dhyāyati" (contemplates) in the	

		bility (acalatvam).	(9)
	1.33	The Smrti also supports this view (Gitā 6.11).	(10)
	1.4	One must meditate (upāsita) wherever the ekāgryam	(10)
		(concentration) of citta is possible.	(11)
	1.5	Upāsana is to be carried on until death (Chānd 8.15.1).	(12)
:	2.	The effects of meditation (1	3-15)
-	2.1	The vināśa (destruction) of the prior sins and the	
		aśleṣa (non-clinging) of the subsequent sins take place for a vidvān (Chānd 4.13.3, 5.24.3).	(13)
5	2.2	There is the vināśa of the prior and the aślesa of the	
		subsequent because even the good deeds done with desire are incompatible with <i>mukti</i> , which arises im-	
		mediately on the fall of the body after the vināśa and	
		aślesa of the deeds (see also Saurabha 4.2.7).	(14)
	2.3	At the vidyāprāpti only those deeds whose effects have	
		not yet started bearing fruit (apravrtta phala eva) alone perish (Chānd 6.14.2).	(15)
		toward and to assume the	
	3.		6-18)
	3.1	There is no cessation(nivrtti) of one's āśrama karmas	
		such as Agnihotra, dāna, etc. since they foster vidyā as seen in the Śruti (Bṛh 4.4.22).	(16)
,	3.2	Those works, whose effects are not yet produced in the form of $vidy\bar{a}$, etc., are divided among friends and	
		enemies as in the text of some "The friends, the good	
		deeds, the enemies, the bad deeds" (See also Saurabha	()
		3.3.26-32).	(17)
	3.3	The text "yad eva vidyayā(karoti)" (Chānd 1.1.10) indicates the prabalatva (strength of vidyā) and	
		durbalatva (weakness) of karma.	(18)
		Alegan for some to the daily discount to the property of the second by the second to the second by the second to t	
	4.	The Vidvān attains Brahman	(19)
4	1.1	Having destroyed through experience one's ārabdhakārya, (deeds, the effects of which have al-	
		ready begun) the knower attains Brahman.	(19)
	- 1	1	()
(В) Т	he Second Pāda	
	1.	The merging of the senses in fire	(1-6)
	1.1	The text "vañmanasi sampadyate" (speech merges into the mind) (Chānd 6.8.6) denotes the merging in the form of a connection of the vāg indriya (organ of speech)	

	in the mind, because the function of the mind is seen even after the cessation (uparata) of the vāg indriya. Also on account of the text (śabdāt) (Chānd 6.8.6).	(1)
1.2	After the vāk (speech), all the indriyas merge in the mind (Praśna, 3.9).	(2)
1.3	That (i.e. mind) is united with the <i>prāṇa</i> (vital breath) (<i>Chānd</i> 6.8.6).	(3)
1.4	The prāṇa, united with the jīva, (Bṛh 4.3.38, 4.4.2; Praśna 6.3) is (finally) merged in the fire.	(4)
1.5	This merging takes place in the elements (<i>bhūtas</i>) including the fire, because of the declaration of the sarvabhūta mayatva (nature consisting of all the elements) of the transmigratory soul (sancaratojīvasya) (<i>Brh</i> 4.4.5).	(5)
1.51	But such a merging is not possible with a single (<i>eka</i>) element alone, because both the <i>Śruti</i> and <i>Smrti</i> show that a single element (without aggregation) is unable to produce the effects (<i>Chānd</i> 6.1.3, <i>Viṣṇu</i> 1.2.48).	(6)
2.	The departure of the knower	(7-17)
2.1	The Vidvān departs through a special vein at the crown of the head (Chānd 8.6.6), but the declaration of his obtaining amṛṭatva (immortality) here and now (Bṛḥ 4.4.7) means that without destroying (adagdhvaiva) the	
	relation with the <i>indriyas</i> , his prior sins are destroyed and the subsequent ones do not cling to him. (See Saurabha 4.1.13-15).	(7)
2.11	and the subsequent ones do not cling to him. (See Saurabha 4.1.13-15). That the amṛtatva is without destroying the connection with the body is known from the designation of samsāra	
2.11	and the subsequent ones do not cling to him. (See Saurabha 4.1.13-15). That the amrtatva is without destroying the connection	(7) (8) (9)
	and the subsequent ones do not cling to him. (See Saurabha 4.1.13-15). That the amṛṭatva is without destroying the connection with the body is known from the designation of samsāra until mukti (release) in the text (Chānd 6.14.2). The sūkṣma śarīra follows the Vidvān (Kauṣ 1.5.1.6). Therefore the text "atha martyo'mṛṭo bhavati" (Then a mortal becomes immortal) (Bṛḥ 4.4.7) does not speak	(8)
2.2	and the subsequent ones do not cling to him. (See Saurabha 4.1.13-15). That the amṛṭatva is without destroying the connection with the body is known from the designation of saṁsāra until mukti (release) in the text (Chānd 6.14.2). The sūkṣma śarīra follows the Vidvān (Kauṣ 1.5.1.6). Therefore the text "atha martyo'mṛṭo bhavati" (Then a	(8)
2.2	and the subsequent ones do not cling to him. (See Saurabha 4.1.13-15). That the amṛtatva is without destroying the connection with the body is known from the designation of samsāra until mukti (release) in the text (Chānd 6.14.2). The sūkṣma śarīra follows the Vidvān (Kauṣ 1.5.1.6). Therefore the text "atha martyo'mṛto bhavati" (Then a mortal becomes immortal) (Bṛh 4.4.7) does not speak of the amṛtatvam through the destruction of the relation with the body. Since heat (uṣma) is a dharma of the sūkṣmadeha, when the latter is absent, the former too is not per-	(8) (9)
2.2 2.3	and the subsequent ones do not cling to him. (See Saurabha 4.1.13-15). That the amṛtatva is without destroying the connection with the body is known from the designation of samsāra until mukti (release) in the text (Chānd 6.14.2). The sūkṣma śarīra follows the Vidvān (Kauṣ 1.5.1.6). Therefore the text "atha martyo'mṛto bhavati" (Then a mortal becomes immortal) (Bṛh 4.4.7) does not speak of the amṛtatvam through the destruction of the relation with the body. Since heat (uṣma) is a dharma of the sūkṣmadeha,	(8)

2.7	The bhūtasūkṣma (the subtle elements) like fire, etc. merge in the highest as declared by the Śruti (Chānd 6.8.6).	(14)
2.71	Those bhūtasūkṣma like vāketc. attain avibhāga (non-division) i.e. tādātmya (essential identity) with the Highest in accordance with the Śruti (Praśna 6.5).	(15)
2.8	When the <i>Vidvān</i> is blessed by (Brahman) the object to be known, (<i>prasannena vedyena</i>) who is pleased by his <i>vidyāsāmarthya</i> (might of knowledge) and by the application of <i>anusmṛti</i> , (remembrance) of the path, which	
	is a supplementary part of <i>vidyā</i> , the forepart of his heart becomes lighted by <i>Parameśvara</i> , and he departs through the door (i.e. the vein that passes out of the crown of the head) revealed by the Lord (<i>Chānd</i> 8.6.5).	(16)
2.9	He, having followed the rays of the sun, goes up (<i>Chānd</i> 8.6.5).	(17)
3.	All the Vidvāns attain Brahman irrespective of the time of departure (1	8-20)
3.1	The <i>Vidvān</i> who dies even at night attains the Highest because of the cessation of his connection with the <i>karmas</i> lasting as long as the body lasts.	(18)
3.2	So also there is <i>Brahmaprāpti</i> for the <i>Vidvān</i> , who dies even during the <i>dakṣiṇāyana</i> .	(19)
3.3	Since the <i>smṛti</i> declares two paths (<i>Sṛti dvayam</i>) for the <i>yogins</i> (Gītā 8.23) there is no restriction with regard to a particular time (for departure).	(20)
(C) 1	he Third Pāda	
1.	The path to the Parabrahman	(1-5)
1.1	There is only one <i>mārga</i> (path) beginning with light (arcirādi), as known from Chāndogya 5.10.1-2, 4.15.5) and Bṛhadāraṇyaka (Bṛh 6.2.15) which (mārga) con-	
	sists of light, day, the vaxing fortnight, six months, the year, the sun, the moon, lightning and the	13
	Purușo'mānava.	(1)
1.11	After the <i>year</i> and before the <i>sun</i> , the <i>Vidvān</i> reaches the <i>agniloka</i> and <i>vāyuloka</i> (<i>Kauṣ</i> 1.3), <i>Bṛh</i> 5.10.1).	(2)
1.12	The vāruṇaloka (Kauṣ 1.3) is to be placed above lighting, and Indra as well as Prajāpati are to be placed above the varuṇaloka.	(3)
1.2	The light etc. are leaders (gamayitāraḥ) of the departing (souls) (Chānd 5.10.2).	(4)
		217

1.21	alone leads the <i>Vidvān</i> , while <i>Varuṇa</i> etc. are helpers conjointly.	
2. 2.0	Man attains his destiny according to his medita- tion Pūrvapakṣa I (Bādari)	(6-15)
	Badari thinks that the group of light etc. leads the <i>upāsakas</i> of <i>Kāryabrahman</i> to him, because that alone is reasonable.	
2.01	On account of the specification of the world by its plural in the text "In those worlds of Brahman dwell the highest possessed of the highest (<i>Br</i> h 6.2.15).	
2.02	The designation "he leads to Brahman" (<i>Chānd</i> 4.15.5) is appropriate because of his <i>sāmipya</i> (proximity) to Brahman on account of his being the first born (i.e. <i>Hiranyagarbha</i>).	
2.03	At the destruction of the world of the <i>Kārya brahman</i> (the effected Brahman) the <i>upāsaka</i> together with the <i>Kāryabrahman</i> obtains (what) is Higher than the <i>Kāryabrahman</i> (<i>Muṇḍ</i> 3.2.6).	
2.04	The Smṛṭi also supports this view (Kūrmapurāṇa (12.269).	
2.00	Pūrvapakṣa II (Jaimini)	(20)
	He leads to the <i>Parabrahman</i> because <i>Brahman</i> (in <i>Chānd</i> 4.15.5) primarily means the <i>Parabrahman</i>).	(11)
2.001	The text "param jyotir upasampadya svena rūpeṇā-bhinispadyate (having attained the form of highest light, he is completed in his own form) (Chānd 8.2.23) shows that the Parabrahman is the object to be ob-	(T (3)
	tained.	(12)
2.002	The intention of reaching the court of <i>Prajāpati</i> (<i>Chānd</i> 8.14.1) refers not the <i>Kāryabrahman</i> , but to the <i>Paramatman</i> , who alone is the topic of discussion.	(13)
2.1	Siddhānta (Bādarāyana)	
	The group of light etc. leads the <i>upāsakas</i> , who do not depend on any symbols i.e. those who meditate on the <i>Parabrahman</i> (the Highest Brahman) as well as those, who mediate on their own imperishable nature, having Brahman for its essence to the <i>Parabrahman</i> . If one were to accept that they lead either the <i>Kāryabrahmopāsakas</i> or only the <i>Parabrahmopāsakas</i> there will be the contradiction of the <i>śruti-Chānd</i>	

	8.12.3 and <i>Chānd</i> 5.10.1. Bhagavan Badarāyaṇa thinks that a man in fact becomes in accordance with his intention (<i>Chānd</i> 3.14.1).	(14)
2.11	The <i>pratikopāsaka</i> has a different <i>phala</i> independent of going through the path of gods (Chānd 7.1.5).	(15)
(D) T	he Fourth Pāda	
1.	The liberated soul becomes completed in its own form	(1-3)
1.1	The jīva, having attained the <i>Para</i> (Brahman), becomes manifest (āvirbhavati) in its own form (svābhāvikena rūpeṇa) as declared by <i>Chānd</i> 8.12.3.	(1)
1.2	Only the <i>vimukta</i> (liberated) from bondage is said to be completed in his own form. (<i>Chānd</i> 8.7.1).	(2)
1.3	The $\bar{a}tman$ alone will have its real nature manifest on account of the context.	(3)
2.	The bhedābheda experience in liberation	(4-21)
2.1	The mukta experiences himself as non-divided from the Highest, with a non-division which is not in contradiction with a division (between the two) (muktaḥ parasmād ātmānam bhāgavirodhinā'vibhāgenānubhavati) because of the direct realization of the tattva (reality), and because the Scripture too reveals this.	(4)
2.01	Pūrvapakṣa I (Jaimini)	
2.00	On the basis of daharavākya (Chānd 8.1.5, 8.7.1-3) Jaimini thinks that the pratyagātman becomes manifest as endowed with the gunas belonging to Brahman such as apahatapāpmatva etc. l Purvapaksa II (Audulomi)	(5)
	Audulomi thinks that the <i>pratyagātman</i> having approached the <i>cidrūpa Brahman</i> becomes manifest in <i>cinmātrarūpa</i> (in the form of intelligence alone) (Bṛḥ	
2.2	4.5.13). Siddhānta (Bādarāyaṇa) Bhagavān Bādarāyaṇa thinks that the mukta jīva becomes manifest in its own vijnāna svarūpa as possessed of apahatapāpmatva (freedom from sin) etc. so that there is no contradiction even if the real nature of	
0.0	the soul is established to be intelligence only.	(7)
2.3	The mukta attains the Fathers through a mere samkalpa (desire) Chānd 8.2.1.	(8)

2.31	The mukta who has the Parabrahman as his ātman (Parabrahmātma) becomes ananyādhipati (without another ruler) (Chānd 7.25.2) only because of the manifestation of (his) attributes of satyasamkalpatva	
0.4	(true desires) etc.	(9)
2.4	Bādari thinks that there is no body for the mukta (Chānd 8.12.1.	(10)
2.41	Jaimini thinks that the <i>mukta</i> has a body (<i>Chānd</i> 7.26.2).	(11)
2.42	Bhagavān Bādarāyana thinks that the muktas do or do not have a body according to their samkalpa.	(12)
2.43	There is no fixed rule about the creation of the body by the <i>mukta</i> (himself) because of the possibility of <i>bhoga</i> by means of a body etc. created by the Bhagavān as in the dream state (See <i>Saurabha</i> 3.2.1-4).	(13)
2.44	Since the <i>mukta</i> can enjoy the <i>lilārasa</i> of Bhagavān even in the presence of self-made body, he (i.e. <i>mukta</i>) creates through his own wish, corresponding to the <i>lilā</i> of the <i>Bhagavān</i> .	(14)
2.45	The jīva can enter into many bodies through the attributes of jñāna (Śvet 5.9) as a lamp (dīpa) through its prabhā.	(15)
2.5	The text "Embraced by the intelligent self, he does not know anything that is outside, nor anything inside" (<i>Chānd</i> 4.3.21) does not refer to the <i>mukta</i> (jīva), but either to deep sleep (<i>Chānd</i> 8.11.1) or to the departure (i.e. death) (<i>Bṛh</i> 4.5.13), for, in the <i>muktāvasthā</i> the jīva is <i>sarvajāa</i> (omniscient) (<i>Chānd</i> 8.12.5).	(16)
2.6	The aiśvarya (lordship) of the mukta has no part in the activities of creation etc of the world, which are exclusive to the Parabrahman (Tait 3.1).	(17)
2.61	The <i>mukta</i> becoming self ruler, having freedom of movement in all the <i>lokas</i> (<i>Chānd</i> 7.25.2) means only that the objects of enjoyment (<i>bhogas</i>) in the world of <i>Hiraṇyagarbha</i> , etc. are the objects of the enjoyment for the freed soul (<i>muktānubhava viṣayata</i>).	(18)
2.62		(19)
2.63		(10)
2.00	show that <i>Brahman</i> alone is capable of the activities of the creation etc of the entire world.	(20)

	with regard to the enjoyment (<i>Tait 2.1</i>) the <i>aiśvarya</i> of the <i>mukta</i> is devoid of the activities (connected) with the world.	(21)
3.	No rebirth for a liberated soul	(22)
	The liberated <i>pratyagātman</i> who has attained the form of the highest light and has become free from the transmigratory existence does not return to the world. (<i>Chānd</i> 4.15.6, <i>Gītā</i> 8.16).	(22)

2.64 Also because of the indicatory marks of equality only

Chapter 8

BRAHMAN

Introduction

In our analysis of the Vedantapārijāta Saurabha, we have already noticed that Nimbarka was a defender of the bhedabhedavada. Ghate 1 after his erudite study of the various commentaries on the Brahmasūtras comes to the conclusion that the bhedabheda doctrine defended by Nimbarka seems to be the doctrine that the Brahmasūtrakāra himself wanted to teach. This doctrine of bhedabheda seems to be even older than the Brahmasūtrakāra himself, since he refers to similar views held by earlier thinkers like Āśmarathya², Audulomi³ and Kāśakṛtsna⁴. But we have no details about their doctrines. The Vedantapārijāta Saurabha of Nimbārka seems to be the earliest available vrtti on the Brahmasūtras offering us the details of the bhedābheda in pre-Samkara days. Therefore an attempt is made in the following chapters to understand the philosophy of the bhedābheda as taught by Nimbārka.

In the present chapter, we discuss the concept of Brahman that Nimbārka held. Brahman has been the theme of the Upaniṣads and the *Brahmasūtras*. The discovery of Brahman as the ultimate conscious principle⁵ and the ground of all beings⁶ is the greatest contribution of the Upaniṣadic sages to Indian Philosophy. This Brahman is also known as the Ātman (the self) or the Puruṣa (the person)⁷. This

Brahman is the all important reality discussed in the Brahmasūtras as well as the Vedāntapārijāta Saurabha.

1. How do we know Brahman?

How do we know Brahman, the greatest Reality? According to the Saurabhakāra Brahman is not an object of sense perception etc8. According to him Brahman is made known by Sastra alone. He does not discuss whether the other means of knowledge such as inference (anumana) etc. accepted by the Schools like Nyava are helpful in the acquisition of the knowledge of Brahman9. Yet should we not say that the Saurabhakāra admits at least incipiently the possibility of knowing Brahman from the world, because he defines Brahman as the creator etc. of this manifold universe 10. As a bhedābhedavādin he also seems to admit the possibility of knowing the Kārana (cause) from the kārya (effect), because the latter is not absolutely different from the former 11. As we will see later, the Saurabhakara accepts Brahman as both the material supportive cause (upādāna) and the efficient (nimitta) cause of the world, which is merely an effect of Brahman. Nimbarka does not discuss such possibilities of knowing Brahman. Perhaps such means of knowledge cannot give absolute certainty. Therefore he positively asserts that Sastra alone is the valid means of knowing Brahman¹².

2. What is sastra?

The Saurabhakāra does not specify what exactly he means by śāstra. He not only distinguishes between the śruti and smṛti literature in the commonly accepted sense of the terms 13 but also considers the śruti literature as pratyakṣa (perception) and the smṛti as anumāṇa (inference) 14. Thus, the distinction between śruti and smṛti is very much substantial. He also does not identify śāstra with the śruti alone, since he quotes copiously from the smṛti literature also to prove his points. Among the smṛti literature he relies on are the Bhagavadgītā, the earlier Purāṇas and the writings of the earlier law givers. It is very significant that he does not quote from the later Vaiṣṇava Purāṇa like the Bhāgavatam or from any sectarian āgamas 15.

He accepts the eternity of the Vedas¹⁶, but he does not

make any defence of the apauruṣeyatva of the Vedic literature. Therefore he also does not feel the need of showing how the unrelated or the apauruṣeya śruti reveals the reality of Brahman. In fact, according to the Saurabhakāra the śruti is not unrelated, for, he considers Brahman as the soul of the śruti¹7. Under BS 1.1.4 the Saurabhakāra encounters his first opponent, the Mīmāmsaka, who claims that the entire Veda is krīyāpara (concerned with Vedic ritualism) and therefore the Vedāntavākyas, although dealing with different topics, are solely concerned with vidhi (injunctions) by way of establishing the excellence of the agent, just as the arthavādavākyas (descriptive portions) do. As a result, the Mīmāmsaka denies the knowability of Brahman from the Vedas.

3. Brahman gives unity to the śruti

The Saurabhakāra rejects the commonly held Mīmāmsa distinction of Karmakanda and the Jñanakanda. He accepts a unified view of the śruti. The unity of the śruti comes from its purport, namely, Brahman. The vidhivākyas (the injunctive statements of the scripture) and the entire Karmakānda form just an anga (part) of Brahmajijnāsā, in so far as they assist indirectly in the rise of vidyā (knowledge) by producing the desire for vidyā18, which is the only means of attaining Brahman 19. The Saurabhakara asserts that the primary concern of the Veda is Brahman and not karma, because there is confluence in Brahman of all the Vedic texts in their primary import by revealing Brahman. Brahman can never be a kratvanga (part of the sacrificial rite) because Brahman is independent of karmas, being the inner controller of all karmas, their agents and instruments. Brahman is also the giver of their fruits. Therefore the karmas are meaningful only in so far as they produce a desire for the knowledge of Brahman.

The Mīmāmsaka opponent goes a step further and denies the knowability of Brahman because the scripture declares that Brahman is not the object of *pramāṇas* like *pratyakṣa* (perception), etc. Therefore he concludes that Brahman cannot be the object of any *pramāṇas* including the śabdapramāṇa. The Saurabhakāra does not accept such an

argument. He asserts that there is either a direct samanvaya (confluence) of all the texts dealing with the lakṣaṇa (definition) and pramāṇa (means of knowledge) of Brahman or an indirect samanvaya of all the texts dealing with the vidyās like Sāṇḍilya, etc. and types of symbols (pratīkas), etc. with Brahman. As a bhedābhedavādin he goes a step further and claims that there is in fact a direct samanvaya in Brahman of all the sentences, even though leading to different activities and have their own topics. All the Vedic sentences have Brahman as their primary subject matter, since they all, without exception deal with Brahman. Even the negative sentences refer to Brahman as far as they are only denying any kind of limit to the nature and attributes of Brahman²⁰.

He inflicts a further blow on the opponent by asking him whether "Brahman is or is not intended to be the purport of the statement": "Brahman is not a subject matter of human language". If the first alternative is accepted then Brahman can be spoken of and there is the refutation of the position that Brahman cannot be spoken of. In the second alternative there is all the more easily the *vācyatva* (being the object of language) of Brahman. Thus, by proving that Brahman can be an object of human language he proves that a meaningful discussion on Brahman is possible. Thus against the Mīmāmsaka he upholds that Brahman is the primary concern of the entire *śāstra*. Even the *ākhyānas* (scriptural stories) in the Upaniṣads are meant to inculcate the knowledge of Brahman²¹.

4. Who is eligible to study the Veda?

The knowledge of Brahman comes through the study of the śāstra. Are all eligible to study the Vedas? The earlier law givers such as Vasistha²², Manu²³ and Gautama²⁴ debarred the Śūdras from even hearing the Vedas. The Saurabhakāra also does not consider everybody to be eligible to study the Vedas. He is in agreement with the earlier law givers and denies the Śūdra any right to learn the Vedas²⁵. Only those who are initiated to the purificatory rites of *upanayana* (the sacred thread) are eligible to learn the Vedas. The Saurabhakāra does not give any concession to the Śūdras. He is not prepared to say that the Śūdra can attain the

knowledge of Brahman through the study of Purāṇas and the other *smṛti* literature²⁶. Therefore it seems that the Saurabhakāra excludes the Śūdras not only from the study of the Vedas but also from the resulting salvific knowledge which is a pre-requisite for liberation. The study of the Veda is one of the pre-requisites for the acquisition of the liberative knowledge. The Saurabhakāra seems to exclude the Śūdras also from the good deeds in so far as he subscribes to the debarring of the Śūdras from being initiated to a sacrifice²⁷.

5. The study of the Veda

The Saurabhakāra concurs with the traditional method of studying the Vedas. The scripture declares that the true knowledge can be imparted by a competent guru who is learned in scripture and established in Brahman. (gurum śrotriyam brahmaniṣṭam (Muṇḍ 1.2.12). The religious student goes to the house of such a guru. (ācāryavān puruṣoveda. Chānd 6.14.2). He studies the Veda in accordance with the rules in the leisure time left over from doing the work for the teacher²⁸. The mere reading of the Veda does not bring in the liberating knowledge. The study of the Veda only helps one to perform his duties as a householder²⁹.

Anyone who has studied the Vedas with its six ancillary disciplines (sadangaveda) can undertake the long process of acquiring Brahmavidyā. A study of the sadangaveda will generate a certain doubt and uncertainty regarding the exact nature of the action (karmas) and their results (phalas). This prompts one to make a thorough study of the dharmamimāmsā. Such a study also makes one convinced of the finitude of the fruits of the ritualistic action (karmaphala). This realization has a two-fold effect. On the one hand the seeker becomes dissatisfied with the worldly objects and on the other hand, he becomes convinced of the superiority of Brahmajñāna. A brahmajijñāsu (a seeker after Brahman) develops an aversion for the transitory fruits of karmas. It makes him desirous of the vision (darśana) of Brahman. It also generates a longing in him to obtain grace (prasada) of Brahman³⁰

According to the Upaniṣadic tradition, the mumukṣu (one desiring liberation) longing for the vision of the Lord must

approach a preceptor. For, without such an instructor there is no reaching the final goal (ananya prokte gatir atra nāsti. Katha 1.2.8). The Saurabhakāra does not describe the qualities of a competent guru. For the mumukṣu his spiritual preceptor (ācārya) is the only deva (master)³¹. The Saurabhakāra also demands a wholehearted devotion for the holy guru on the part of the mumukṣu³². It is not clear whether the Saurabhakāra makes any distinction between the ācārya who is the eka deva for the mumukṣu and the śrīguru to whom the mumukṣu is expected to have eka hārda bhakti (wholehearted devotion). In Saurabha 1.3.8 he considers Śrīkumāra as his paramācārya (the highest teacher) and Nārada as his guru³³. Are we allowed to make a distinction between ācārya and guru on the one hand and guru and śrīguru on the other³⁴?

There are certain moral and psychological qualities demanded of a *brahmajijnāsu*. First of all, he must possess the qualities of calmness and self-control. He must be indifferent to the worldly objects, forbearing and recollected in accordance with the *śruti "tasmād evam vicchānto dānta uparatastitikṣuḥsamāhito bhūtvā'tmany evātmānam paśyet* (Bṛh 4.4.23)³⁵.

He must also have deep learning, child-like simplicity, unostentatiousness and profound reflection³⁶. He must be a man of asceticism, seeking the $\bar{a}tman$ by austerity, chastity, faith and knowledge³⁷.

Even the gods need to seek enlightenment from a *guru*. Indra becomes a disciple of Prajāpati and lives with him for one hundred and one years to be instructed on the real self³⁸. With the help of the *guru* the *mumukṣu* follows the injunctions of śravaṇa, manana and nididhyāsana — hearing the scripture, reasoning over it and realizing its truth, as declared by the śruti "ātmā vā are draṣṭavyaḥ śrotavyo mantavyo nidihyāsitavyaḥ" (Brh 2.4.5)³⁹. The guru, who has realized "This is my own self" (Chānd 3.14.3-1) instructs his disciple "This is your own self" (Brh 3.4.1 etc.) and helps him to meditate on the Highest Person and to realize his own real self⁴⁰.

6. The Brahman made known by the *śruti* is Purusottama

The Saurabhakara has inherited not only the Upanisadic tradition but also the Bhagavata tradition. In conformity with the Upanisadic tradition he considers Brahman as the Highest Reality⁴¹. He is brhattama (the greatest)⁴². There exists nothing besides Him⁴³ or higher than Him⁴⁴. He is beyond the limitations of space and time⁴⁵. In fact the entire created objective world is just one foot of Brahman. He is beyond them all and is superior to them all⁴⁶. He is the Paramatman⁴⁷. As a Bhagavata devotee the Saurabhakara identifies the Absolute Paramatman with Bhagavan Väsudeva⁴⁸ Ramākānta Purusottama⁴⁹. He is the lord and controller over Brahman, Isa and Kala50. Due significance is to be given to the fact that the entire Saurabha is generally free from Sectarianism⁵¹. Nowhere in the Saurabha Brahman or Purusottama is presented as adorned with cakra, sampha etc52 or as residing in the Vaikuntha or Goloka. Except for the fact that the Saurabhakara identifies Brahman with Vāsudeva Ramākānta Purusottama, the Saurabha is free from Sectarian theology. The description of Brahman or Śrī Purusottama is more in the Upanisadic line with Upanisadic terminologies rather than in the Vaisnavite Sectarian terms⁵³.

7. Brahman in Himself

Brahman can be considered either as *nirguṇa*⁵⁴ (attributeless) or *saguṇa*⁵⁵ (with attributes) or both⁵⁶. According to the Saurabhakāra the *nirguṇatva* of Brahman would mean that Brahman is both beyond all the *guṇas* and that he is devoid of all defects and negative qualities. Brahman is free from all limitations such as sin, parts, action, perishability etc⁵⁷. Brahman has no sense organ⁵⁸, nor does He depend on any external instruments⁵⁹. Therefore, Brahman's being *nirguṇa* (beyond all the *guṇas*) would mean that He is not limited by any *guṇas*. The *nirguṇatva* in this context has a positive content. As pointed out above the Saurabhakāra holds that even the scriptural texts denying Brahman has a positive content in so far as they deny only any kind of limitations with regard to the nature, attributes,

etc. of Brahman⁶⁰. Brahman is in fact the abode of all positive and auspicious attributes⁶¹ in their fullness.

The Saurabhakāra points out that for the sake of meditation Brahman has been described in the scriptures through various symbols and metaphors, such as anandamaya (full of bliss)62, manomaya63 (consisting of mind), or as mere pleasure (karn)64. Some śruti texts enjoin to worship Brahman as the person within the eve or as abiding within the sun⁶⁵. Brahman is also occasionally presented in the scripture as the ākāśa (ether)66 or prāna (vital breath) or as jyoti (light) or the metre qauatri67. In the teachings and the discourses of the Upanisads Brahman is often taught as the bhuman (plenitude)68 or as the vaisvanara (all destructive fire)69, or the daharākāśa70 (the small ether within the heart) or as the adrsya (the unperceptible)71 and the aksaya (imperishable)72. He is even described as a measured being, measured to the size of a thumb⁷³. Through various symbolic expressions like these, the Vedic seers attempted to explain to us their realization of the great mystery of Brahman, who is beyond everything yet indwelling in all. The symbolic presentations of Brahman are the feeble attempts of man to understand and to realize the mystery of Brahman. Each of them points to Brahman, trying to bring out one or other aspect of the mysterium tremendum of Brahman.

8. Qualities of Brahman in Himself

The absolute and incomprehensible nature of Brahman can only be expressed through paradoxes. As a matter of fact his qualities (attributes) already share in the mysterious, incomprehensible and paradoxical nature of Brahman. Therefore the Saurabhakāra describes Brahman as the greatest (bṛhattama), on account of His infinite, inconceivable and innate nature (svābhāvika svarūpa), qualities and powers⁷⁴. His description of Brahman as apahatapāpman⁷⁵ etc. seems to be a reference to Chāndogya⁷⁶, according to which Brahman has the following eight-fold qualities. (1) apahatapāpma (freedom from sin), (2) vijara (ageless), (3) vimṛṭyu(deathless), (4) viśoka(griefless), (5) vijighatsa(without hunger), (6) apipāsa(without thirst), (7) satyakāma(possessed of true desires) and (8) satyasamkalpa (having true resolve).

They form the evermanifest *svabhāva* (nature) of Brahman⁷⁷. Brahman is essentially bliss; others become blissful (ānandi) by obtaining Him⁷⁸. His bliss is unlimited, unlike the human bliss⁷⁹ of which He Himself is the cause⁸⁰. Brahman is the beginningless⁸¹ and the endless⁸².

9. Functional qualities of Brahman

Brahman, who has no origin, is the source of everything⁸³. He is the support of all the created objects, of heaven and of earth⁸⁴. He is the creator of ākāśa (ether)⁸⁵ etc., nay He is the sole cause of the <code>sṛṣṭi</code> (creation), <code>sthiti</code> (sustenance) and <code>laya</code> (dissolution) of this inconceivable and complex universe⁸⁶. In fact all the attributes of causality are appropriate on the part of Brahman alone⁸⁷. He is not only the manifester of nāma (name) and rūpa (form)⁸⁸ but also the final goal of everything⁸⁹. All things are created by Him and all things return to Him. As the alpha and omega points of the entire created reality, Brahman is often presented as ākāśa (meaning the origin) and prāṇa (meaning the end)⁹⁰. All things owe their being and existence to Him. They will find their final goal and fulfilment in Him at their liberation.

Other positive qualities of Brahman consist in His being nituāvāpta samastakāma (whose desires are eternally fulfilled)91, sarvajña (omniscient)92, sarveśvara (Lord of all)93, sarvaśaktiman (omnipotent)94 and sarvasamartha95 (capable of doing everything). The qualities like hitatamatva (highest auspiciousness)96, abhayatva (fearlessness)97. samuadvāvatva (uniter of lovely thing)98 and amrtatva (immortality)99 are intelligible only when referred to Brahman. He is great and all-pervasive 100, yet at the same time, He abides within all¹⁰¹. He indwells in the heart of all the jivas 102. He is the inner controller of all the karmas and their agents as well as their implements 103 nay, of everything 104. Although He is the antaryamin of everything 105. He is not contaminated by the faults (dosas) of the jivas 106, nor is He sullied by the defects, miseries, pains and pleasures of the created world.

Thus, Nimbārka seems to say that the Brahman is, both immanent and transcendent. He indwells in everything, yet remains incomprehensible and beyond all things. The more

He reveals Himself the more His nature remains paradoxical. We shall discuss these points in detail in chapter eleven.

As pointed out earlier, in the *Saurabha*, there is no mention of the tender qualities of Brahman like His loveliness, tenderness, etc¹⁰⁷. Nor is there any mention of the *premaviśeṣalakṣaṇā bhakti*, based on such tender qualities of Brahman¹⁰⁸. The *vedānta ratna mañjūṣā*¹⁰⁹, a later work of the Nimbārka school, has a detailed description and discussion of such qualities of Brahman¹¹⁰.

10. Brahman is the cause of the world

The Upaniṣads declare that the origin of this universe is from Brahman¹¹¹. The causality of Brahman is something unique. He is both the nimittakāraṇa (efficient cause) as well as the upādānakāraṇa (the material supportive cause) of everything¹¹² since there exists nothing besides Him. In ordinary life there is a clear-cut distinction and difference between the nimittakāraṇa and the upādānakāraṇa as in the case of the potter and the clay with which he makes a pot. If Brahman were only a nimittakāraṇa, He would be a "potter" god and would be like any pratyagātman (individual soul), depending upon an upādānakāraṇa extrinsic to Him, in the form of pradhāna (primordial matter), just as a potter depends on clay for the production of a pot. Let us listen to the Saurabhakāra himself:

Saurabha 1.4.23. "prakṛtiśca pratijñādṛṣṭāntānuparodhāt"

"The material cause as well as the efficient cause — indicated by the particle "ca" (and) (in the $s\bar{u}tra$) — is none but the Supreme Soul, because then alone the initial proposition "Did you ask for that instruction whereby the unheard becomes heard, the unthought becomes thought, the unknown becomes known? ($Ch\bar{a}nd6.1.3$), as well as the illustration just as, my dear, through a lump of clay, all objects made of clay may be known" ($Ch\bar{a}nd6.1.4$) are explicable".

Saurabha 1.4.24. "abhidyopadeśācca"

"On account of the teaching of reflection" in the text "He perceived (i.e. thought) may I be many" (*Chānd* 6.2.3), "the fact that Brahman is the creator (i.e. the efficient cause) and the material cause is established".

Saurabha 1.4.25. "sākṣāccobhayāmnānāt"

"On account of the direct mention of Brahman as the efficient and material cause in the sacred text: "Brahman was the wood Brahman the tree from which they carved out the heaven and the earth. O wise men, ask through the mind whereon it stood supporting the worlds" (*Tait Br.* 2.8.9.6-7). Brahman alone is of the two-fold forms".

Saurabha 1.4.26. ātmakṛteḥ pariṇāmāt

"Brahman alone is the efficient and the material cause of the world. Why? "On account of creating Himself" as known from the passage: "That itself created itself" (*Tait.* 2.7)...If it be objected: how can the creator be Himself the object of creation? (we reply); "On account of transformation". The omniscient and omnipotent Brahman, having transformed Himself into the form of the world by the projection of His power, becomes transformed, indeed, through His own nature, undeveloped, and possessing powers like creatorship, etc."

In his interpretation of the above four *sūtras*, the Saurabhakāra stresses that Brahman is both the nimittakāraṇa and the *upādānakāraṇa* of the universe. To substantiate his point he quotes *Chāndogya* 6.1.3, 6.1.4, 6.2.3. *Tait. Br.* 28.9.6-7 and *Tait, Upaniṣad* 2.7. The nimittakāraṇatva of Brahman consists in his willing. "He perceived may I be many" (*Chānd* 6.2.3) and as a result He projects (*vikṣepa*) His creative power. Brahman is the nimittakāraṇa in so far as He evolves name and form in accordance with the text "nāmarūpe vyākaravāṇi" (*Chānd* 6.3.2)¹¹³.

But the Tait. Brahmana text "Brahman was the wood Brahman the tree from which they carried out the heaven and earth. O wise men, ask through the mind whereon it stood supporting the world" (Tait. Br. 2.8.9.6-7) quoted above does not explain how Brahman is both the nimitta and upādānakāraņa. Yet the Saurabhakāra interprets it as referring to Brahman as both the efficient and material supportive cause of the world. He also interprets "tad ātmānam svayam akurata" (Tait 2.7) as referring to both the nimittakāranatva and upādānakāranatva of Brahman. Thus the Saurabhakāra seems to take "the decision of Brahman" as His nimittakāranatva and the aspect of His transforming Himself into the forms of created objects as His upādānakāranatva, because the Saurabhakāra is well aware that besides the omnipotent Purusottama there exists nothing else 114. Therefore He alone could be both the nimitta and the upādāna of everything.

In the above passages as well as elsewhere in the Saurabha Nimbārka seems to accept a difference between Brahman

who is presented as the nimittakarana as well as the upādānakārana of everything and the ordinary nimittakāranas and upādānakāranas of everyday experience. The ordinary nimittakārana, like the potter, has to depend on a given external material cause to make a pot. He brings about the effect through hard work. Brahman, on the contrary, creates everything through a mere wish. There is no question of any industry or effort on the part of Brahman. Secondly, the upādānakārana in ordinary experience is the unconscious matter, which is shaped by an external agent. Brahman, on the contrary, is a conscious upādānakārana. While the ordinary upādānakāraņas undergo substantial change under the transforming action of the nimittakāranas, there is no transformation within the nature of Brahman. Brahman creates through a mere wish, Through His will, the finite world of jivas and jagat are produced from Him. They owe their existence to Him. By presenting Brahman as both the nimittakārana and the upādānakārana of everything, Nimbārka also seems to accept not only the ontological dependence of the created world on Brahman but also their co-substantiality with Brahman¹¹⁵.

Sometimes the scriptures describe the <code>upādānakāraṇa</code> of the universe as existent (<code>sat</code>)¹¹6 or as non-existent (<code>asat</code>)¹¹7 and sometimes as <code>avyakta</code> (unmanifest) or as <code>vyakta</code> (manifest)¹¹8. The Saurabhakāra holds that all these texts refer to Brahman and not to the <code>pradhāna</code> of the Sāmkhya¹¹9. According to our author the terms <code>asat</code>, <code>avyakta</code>, etc. refer to the subtleness of the created universe prior to creation, which exists in Brahman in an unmanifest form as his <code>śakti</code> (power). The <code>upādāna</code> of the universe is the <code>avyakrta svarūpa</code> (undeveloped nature) of Brahman, which is both powerful and creative¹²²². Brahman endowed with the subtle powers is declared to be the <code>upādānatva</code> of the universe¹²¹.

This two-fold causality of Brahman makes the initial proposition "Did you ask for that instruction whereby the unheard becomes heard, the unthought becomes thought, the unknown becomes known?" and the illustration "Just as my dear, through a lump of clay (mṛṭpiṇḍa), all the objects made of clay may be known" 122 become meaningful 123. Though the mṛṭpiṇḍa is not the nimittakāraṇa, yet if we know

fully the *mṛtpiṇḍa* we can know all the products made of it. Afortiori if we know Brahman, the one, who is the *nimitta* and the *upādānakāraṇa* of all the effects then we will know all the created objects. If we know Him the One then we know the many. Brahman is not a producer of the world, say like a carpenter, but He pulṣates within the entire created universe. Everything created is a participation in His being.

11. Brahman needs no instruments

The Saurabhakāra now proceeds to answer some doubts and objections. He faces the objection that Brahman who is without any external implements cannot be the cause of the universe because producers like the potter, etc. use many implements. The reply of the Saurabhakāra is that Brahman needs no implements. "He transforms Himself "like milk" possessing, as He does, powers peculiar to Him alone". If the gods can create what they want, how much more Brahman, the omnipotent, can do through a mere wish¹²⁴. In accordance with the text "Supreme is His power declared to be manifold, natural is the operation of His knowledge and power" (*Śvet*. 6.8), Brahman is endowed with all the powers and therefore He is able to do everything ¹²⁵.

Thus, by proceeding from a grosser type of transformation viz. the transformation of milk into curd, Nimbārka takes us to a higher form of production of effects when he speaks of the gods (super human entities) who can, through a mere wish, produce what they want. According to Nimbārka, the creative activity of Brahman transcends even the superhuman realm of the gods. By transcending the "gross" and by going to more and more "subtle" creative principle, Nimbārka seems to "spiritualize" the creative and transforming power of Brahman. Therefore, when Nimbārka says that Brahman transforms Himself into the forms of the created finite world we have to understand it in the most "spiritual" or rather metaphysical sense of the transforming creative activity.

12. Karma is responsible for unequal creation

Inequality and cruelty, due to unequal creation, destruction and the rest, depend on the karma of the jivas them-

selves. They do not pertain to the creator of the universe, as in the case of the rain, which gives rise to manifold varieties of vegetation ¹²⁶. Brahman is like an impartial and just judge who gives everyone his due. The variety in creation is due to the past *karmas* of the jivas. These *karmas* are eternal in the sense that they have no beginning (anādi) but they can be brought to an end through *vidyā*.

13. No mutation in Brahman

Brahman, through a mere wish, transforms Himself through a process of parināma (evolution) into the ākāra (form) of the universe by the projecion of His power through His own powerful and creative nature ¹²⁷. Prior to creation the world inheres in Brahman as His power. Creation is the manifestation of this power ¹²⁸. The Saurabhakāra, on the one hand, defends the *upādānakāraṇatva* of Brahman, yet, on the other hand, asserts that there is neither a total nor even a partial transformation of Brahman because of His particular qualities ¹²⁹. In fact the *pariṇāma* of Brahman is merely a *vikṣepa* of His *śakti*. Brahman does not cease to be Brahman. Brahman is indeed partless and all pervasive ¹³⁰. Therefore He cannot be transformed either entirely or in parts ¹³¹. Nimbārka does not accept that creation brings any change or transformation in Brahman.

The Saurabhakāra uses the term parināma to explain this process of creation, but he does not explain the term itself. Here we aré forced to interpret his mind in order to avoid glaring contradictions. Parināma involves evolution and change. The Saurabhakāra denies any change on the part of Brahman. Brahman remains transcendent. Our author, following the scriptures, believes that the world came from Brahman, without in any way minimizing Brahman's uniqueness and transcendence. Here he touches the mystery of the origination or the procession of "the many" from "the One". Making use of the Upaniṣadic examples he tries to explain this mystery. He brings in the instance of the spider creating the web 132 or the procession of the lustre from the sun 133. Ultimately creation is due to the will of Brahman as declared by the Chānd 6.2.3 "He perceived may I be many".

Here also Nimbārka seems to make certain distinctions

between the process of transformation on different levels. On the level of the most gross form of material transformation. for example, that of the clay into a pot or of milk into curd there is almost complete mutation of the cause into the effect. The example of the spider and the web refines the sense of mutation in so far as the web in no way causes any changes in the spider's nature and substance. At the same time the web is a participation in the essence of the spider. A more subtle example for the absence of any physical mutation is given through the example of the sun and its effect, the lustre. Nimbārka naturally expects us to transcend whatever material limitations these examples have, when he says that Brahman created the world through a mere perception, which brings no physical mutation or transformation in Him. "He perceived may I be many" (Chand 6.2.3).

14. The opponents of the Brahmakaranavada

a) Nimbārka's criticism of the creation theories of the other schools of thought will make his doctrine on the origin of the world more clear. According to the Saurabhakara the main opponent of the Brahmakāranavāda is the Sāmkhva. As we have noticed in chapter six above, the Saurabhakāra rejects the Sāmkhya doctrine primarily on the ground that it contradicts the śruti134. He further points out that even on logical ground the Samkhya doctrine of Prakrti and Purusa as the ultimate Principles of creation is unacceptable. First of all, an acetana (unconscious) principle devoid of reflexion 135 and power of knowing 136 and thus unacquainted with the varied arrangements of the objects to be created 137 cannot be the cause of the world 138. Only a conscious Principle can be the creator of the world 139. The pradhana advocated by the Sāmkhya is incapable of any spontaneous activity 140. It cannot be subject to the influence of an intelligent Principle 141. Therefore a blind acetana cause cannot have any purpose nor direction of creation 142. It cannot be the ultimate goal of all beings143.

Similarly the *Puruṣa* advocated by the Sāmkhya, cannot be the enjoyer of *dharmādharma karmaphala*¹⁴⁴. On the basis of *Kauṣ* 3.9 & *Kauṣ* 4.1 he also rejects the *Sāmkhyapuruṣa*,

for that matter any other jīva, as the creator of the universe. Only the omnipotent and omniscient Puruṣottama can be the creator of the universe. The individual jīvas or the puruṣas are not omnipotent and omniscient. That seems to be the reason why the Saurabhakāra rejects the creatorship of the jīvas. In Saurabha 4.4.17 he points out that even the mukta jīva does not share in Brahman's activity of the creation of the universe. He makes it clear in Saurabha 2.1.22 that although the jīvas are non-different from Brahman, their upādānakāraṇa, they are also different from Him, possessing, as they do, some individual qualities of their own.

According to the Saurabhakāra, the material cause, denoted by the term *upādānakārana*, *prakrti*, ¹⁴⁵ *avyakta* ¹⁴⁶ etc. is in fact Brahman alone and not what the Sāmkhyas understand by such terms. The *sāmkhyapradhāna*, presented as the ultimate principle is meaningless ¹⁴⁷ because of the *brahmātmakatva* of everything ¹⁴⁸. The doctrine that Brahman is the *prakrti* (material cause) of the world is based on both the *śruti* and *smrti* and is free from all defects ¹⁴⁹. Brahman is not only the *prakrtatva* of everything, He is also the *preraka* (the mover) of everything ¹⁵⁰. The primary cause of the universe must not only be the *upādānakārana* of the world, but also the prime mover of every activity. The *sāmkhya pradhāna* can never be such a prime mover ¹⁵¹.

b) The Saurabhakāra also considers the Vaiśeṣikas, the Sugatas, the Pāśupatas and the Śāktas as the opponents of the *Brahmakāraṇavāda*. He rejects the Vaiśeṣika position that the world is a combination of the *Paramāṇus* (ultimate atoms)¹⁵², for, such a theory is illogical and inconsistent since there cannot be any extended combination at all from the partless *Paramāṇus* ¹⁵³. Further, there cannot be any first motion on the part of these *Paramāṇus*. Even the *adṛṣṭa* (the unseen power) cannot be considered to cause the first motion in the *Paramāṇus* because it cannot in any way be connected to a partless *Paramāṇu* ¹⁵⁴. Besides, if the activity of the *Paramāṇus* is natural, there will be only eternal creation. In the absence of it there will be eternal dissolution ¹⁵⁵. The combination of the *Paramāṇus* is impossible also because of the defect in the doctrine of *samavāya* (inherence)

itself. According to the Vaiśeṣikas the combination of two or more *Paramāṇus* are due to the *samavāya* which, on its part, is distinct from the *Paramāṇus* themselves. Nimbārka points out that such a doctrine would require an infinite regress of *samavāyas* to connect the proceeding *samavāyas* which are considered to be distinct entities in themselves ¹⁵⁶. He also denies the doctrine of the eternity of the *Paramāṇus* since the objects made of these *Paramāṇus* can be destroyed ¹⁵⁷. There cannot also be any qualitative difference among the objects made out of these *Paramāṇus* ¹⁵⁸. Therefore, since reasonable people are unable to accept the *Paramāṇukāraṇavāda* it should be rejected by the *mumukṣu* ¹⁵⁹.

- c) The main ground on which Nimbarka attacks the Sugatas is their acceptance of Ksanikavāda (momentariness). He points out that no samudāya (aggregation) of the nonsentient components like bhūta (element), bhautika (elemental), citta (mind) and caitta (mental) is possible in the absence of a proper cause for their union 160. Nor could the Sanghāta (aggregation) be the result of the mutual causality of the momentary avidyā, samskāra, vijnāna, nāmarūpa, sadāuatana 161, etc. because momentary as it is, the prior entity is destroyed before the production of the subsequent162. If, on the contrary, the origin of the effect is admitted even when the cause is non-existent, then the doctrine of the ksanikavādin that vijnāna (consciousness) arises from the causality of indriya (sense organ), āloka (light), manaskāra (mental mode), and visaya (object) will be contradicted. If the effect, on the other hand, originates from an existent cause, then there will be simultaneity (yaugapadyam) of effect with the cause, which also contradicts the ksanikavāda163. Similarly he also points out the impossibility of the interruption (viccheda) of the continuous series (santāna)164 as well as the inconsistency of the view that moksa is the nirodha of avidua, because the series has in fact no reality beyond the single momentary member of the series 165
- d) Nimbārka considers the Pāśupata sect as an upadharma (sub-sect) which contradicts the Vedas in so far as it contradicts the Vedic doctrine of the non-difference of the nimittakāraṇa and upādānakāraṇa of the world 166. He

rejects the Pāśupata doctrine because it makes a distinction between the *upādānakāraṇa* (or pradhāna) and the *nimittakāraṇa* (i.e. the *preraka* or Paśupati)¹⁶⁷. Nimbārka points out that on the one hand, there cannot be any relation between a bodiless Paśupati and the Pradhāna¹⁶⁸, and on the other hand, Paśupati cannot have a body which is either eternal or non-eternal, because the former possibility contradicts experience and the latter (i.e. non-eternal body) arises only when creation sets in¹⁶⁹. Besides Paśupati cannot have a body and sense organs like the jīva because that would mean *bhoga* (experience of *karma*) on his part ¹⁷⁰. How can *Paśupati* have any connection with the *adṛṣṭa*, consisting of the *puṇya* etc. because that will imply finitude (*antavatvam*) and ignorance (*ajñatvam*)¹⁷¹ in him.

e) Following the same kind of arguments as we have seen, in chapter six, he rejects the Saktamata advocating a female principle as the ultimate source of everything under BS 2.2.42-45 where Sāmkara and Rāmānuja discuss the pros and cons of the Pañcaratra doctrine of vuuhavada. Nimbarka points out that according to the Śaktas themselves the origin of the world from Sakti is not possible without the Purusa. Since there is no sense organ prior to creation, no connection between Sakti and Purusa is possible prior to creation 172. Therefore Sakti cannot be considered as the cause of the world¹⁷³. On the other hand, if the Śāktas consider that the Śakti possesses natural intelligence etc. so that she needs no external help for the creation of the world. it is an acceptance of the Brahmakāranavāda¹⁷⁴, because according to the Brahmakaranavada the ultimate Cause is an intelligent Principle who is both the nimittakārana as well as the upādānakārana of everything. Finally, Nimbārka reminds the Śākta that the śāktavāda is opposed to both the śruti and the śmrti¹⁷⁵. Therefore it cannot be accepted at all. Thus Nimbārka establishes that Brāhmakāranavāda alone stands to reason and is based on śruti and smrti.

15. Brahman and the universe are correlatives

Since the universe is nothing but the *śakti vikṣepa* of Brahman, there is *ananyatvam* (non-difference) between Brahman, the *kāraṇa* and the universe, the *kārŋa*. Though

the karva is posterior (logically) than the karana, still since the reality of kārua exists in the kārana, there is non-difference between the two. The universe (kārua) can never be thought of without Brahman the (kārana) being first thought of In the realm of existence Brahman is the ultimate Principle as the Saurabhakara states "because the effect is perceived only when the cause is existent"176 and "on account of the existence of the effect belonging to a posterior time - in the cause" 177. The very existence of the universe calls for its creator, who is non-different from it 178. It means that Brahman and the universe are correlative, one always implies the other. As a bhedabhedavadin, the Saurabhakara accepts that the jivas and the jagat, which are effects of Brahman, are real. The effect is co-relative with the cause. The effect cannot be understood without the cause or vice versa. From this we know that the satkaruavada (pre-existence of the effect in the cause) is the theory that is propounded in the Saurabha.

16. Cause-effect have a bhedabheda relation

The Saurabhakāra attempts also to clear off a general misunderstanding based on the concept of satkāryavāda179 (the doctrine of the pre-existence of the effect in the cause) that the kārya must be of the same nature as that of the kārana. (that is to say, from a lump of clay we can get only a clay pot and not a gold one), otherwise the kārua would be asat prior to its origination 180. As a bhedabhedavadin he denies both an absolute identity (atyantabheda) between the kārya and the kārana and also an absolute difference (atyanta binnatuam) 181 between them. He accepts that from a conscious Brahman a non-conscious material world can originate, since it is not necessary that there must be absolute similarity between the material cause and the effects. In his defence he advances the famous Vedantic examples of the origin of hair which is different from the person and of the dung beetles which are different from cowdung 182.

17. The aupanisadikapradhāna

Our ācārya seems to accept a type of primordial matter (prakrti) which he calls the aupaniṣadika-pradhāna. It de-

pends on the *Paramākaraṇa* (the Supreme Cause) 183. Brahman is its source and its controller. Therefore he calls it *brahmātmikā* (i.e. the *pradhāna* that has Brahman as its soul). The scripture refers to it as *ajā* (the unborn) 184. He does not consider it a contradiction to accept an unborn primodial matter (*ajāprakrti*) which has in its turn Brahman as its *upādānakāraṇa* because ultimately Brahman is the *upādānakāraṇa* of the entire universe, even including the *ajāprakrti* 185. He points out, as we have seen above, that the *acetaṇapradhāna* cannot be the cause of the world because of its unacquaintance with the conscious, variegated and orderly production of things in the world. Only the Omnipotent and Omniscient Purusottama can be the creator of the universe.

18. The purpose of creation

Since Brahman is the one whose desires are eternally fulfilled (nityāvāpta samastakāma)¹⁸⁶ He possibly cannot have any unfulfilled desires and unsatisfied needs or unachieved goals. He is the most perfect being. Therefore there cannot be any insufficiency or any wants in Him. If Brahman is nityāvāpta samastakāma, the question why should Brahman create this world is a legitimate one. In agreement with the Vedāntic tradition, the Saurabhakāra considers that the purpose of creation is a mere sport (krīdā mātram) on the part of Brahman¹⁸⁷.

In ordinary life we see kings etc. engaging themselves in mere sports. In the days of the kings, they were considered to be nityāvāptakāma. The inner joy of the king finds expression in the sports he plays. It appears that inner joy of Brahman is manifested in his sport of creation. Nimbārka does not say that the cause of the creation of the world is the inner joy of Brahman. Brahman, the supreme monarch of the universe, indulges in pastimes out of His free will. In accepting the theory of sport (krīdāvāda) the Saurabhakāra has not gone beyond the traditional belief that Brahman creates the world just for a sport.

Although creation is a sport on the part of Brahman it is not entirely motiveless. It serves the demand of the moral law whereby each one is given his just dues in accordance with his *karma*. Although creation is a free act on the part of Brahman, it is a logical necessity as far as the jivas are concerned. It is an outcome of the beginningless *karma* in accordance with the text "the creator fashioned the sun and the moon as he did before" (RV 10.190.3)¹⁸⁸. It shows that *karma* done by the jivas in previous births exist prior to each subsequent creation.

The Saurabhakāra has not ventured to reconcile the sovereignty and freedom on the part of Brahman with the logical necessity of creation arising out of the *karmas* of the *jīvas*. Is the creative sport of Brahman really free or is it conditioned and necessitated by the *karmas* of the *jīva?* Nimbārka seems to accept both: He does not speak at all about the forgiving grace or soteriological action on the part of Brahman towards the *jīva*. All that the Saurabhakāra says is that Brahman creates the world out of His free will and at the same time, Brahman is not responsible for the misery and inequality in the created world. The individual souls are responsible for their lot in accordance with the *śruti* text "one becomes good by good action, bad by bad action" 189.

19. The process of evolution

At the end of the *Pralaya* (dissolution) of the previous age and in the beginning of a new creation, Brahman by a mere wish evolves various names and forms through a process of tripartition¹⁹⁰. The Saurabhakāra does not explain the precise role of the *adrṣṭa* of the jīvas in this process of tripartition. The basic elements according to the Saurabhakāra are fire, water and food (earth). Everything material is the result of a combination of these elements. He explains:

"That in the body there are the evolutes of fire, water and food, made tripartite, may be ascertained from the scriptural text itself viz. "From earth the excreta, flesh and the mind, from water urine, blood and the vital-breath, from fire the bones, marrow and speech" ¹⁹¹.

Brahman the supreme being renders everything including the deities tripartite 192 in accordance with the text "That divinity thought" come, let me, having entered into these three deities, with this living soul, evolve name and forms" ($Ch\bar{a}nd$ 6.3.2).

The process of evolution seems to be from the most subtle to the grosser forms ¹⁹³, while that of the dissolution is the reverse ¹⁹⁴. We have seen that the Saurabhakara accepts a type of primordial matter which he calls the *aupaniṣadika* pradhāna. He fails to explain not only its nature and its composition but also how the process of evolution commences from this *aupaniṣadika* primordial matter ¹⁹⁵.

The Saurabhakāra insists that everything including ether originates from Brahman. According to him:

"On account of the non-separation of the mass of objects, beginning with the ether, from Brahman, there is no contradiction of the initial proposition that there is the knowledge of all through the knowledge of one". But if the ether be something non-originated then it must be outside the sphere of knowable objects and thereby the initial proposition will be set aside. The non-separation of everything from Brahman is known "from the scriptural text" viz. "Everything has that for its soul" (Chānd 6.8.3) etc 196.

He points out that the texts like "All this has that for its soul (*Chānd* 6.8.7 etc.) proves that the entire expanse of the universe, beginning with ether, has Brahman for its soul and is an effect of Brahman¹⁹⁷. Nimbārka considers that the created things are effects and as effects they have an origin. *Tathā cayāvad vikāram udbhava eva gamyate* (as far as there is effect, there is origin indeed). Thus, for him the argument would be:

Whatever is an effect has origin The ether is an effect Therefore the ether has an origin¹⁹⁸.

Having proved that all created things including ether etc. have an origin, the Saurabhakāra considers the view that from $\bar{a}k\bar{a}\acute{s}a$ (ether) originates the $v\bar{a}yu$ (air), from $v\bar{a}yu$ originates tejas (fire), from tejas originates $\bar{a}pa$ (water) and from $\bar{a}pa$ originates $bh\bar{u}$ (earth) as a $p\bar{u}rvapak \dot{s}a$ doctrine ¹⁹⁹. According to him the correct doctrine is that all things originate from Brahman their inner soul in accordance with the text "May I be many" ($Ch\bar{a}nd$ 6.2.3) "He himself created Himself" (Tait 2.7)²⁰⁰.

20. The order of evolution

On the one hand the Saurabhakara seems to deny any specific order of creation. He considers that the text "from him arise the vital breath, the mind and all the sense organs" (Mund 2.1.3) is not concerned with any specific order of creation²⁰¹. On the other hand, he accepts that the order of dissolution is the reverse to the order of creation. He also acknowledges that the categories of the unmanifest, mahat, ahamkara, etc. well-known from texts concerned with the order of creation and dissolution are to be understood as intermediaries between the soul and the ether as implied in the śruti text "From this soul, verily, the ether originated" (Tait 2.1)202. Such a position on the part of the acarya prompts us to consider that he is not averse to the popularly known order of creation and dissolution of the evolutes of the elements, the sense organs etc. from the (aupanisadika) pradhāna. What he wants to assert appears to be the doctrine that all things have their origin from Brahman, their inner soul, and on whom they depend for their existence and activities. In this process of creation the cause (kārya srastā) is the Paramapurusa, who is the inner controller of all these elements203

21. Dissolution

The great pralaya (dissolution of the world) is a counter part of creation²⁰⁴ which would mean that it is the withdrawal of the creative power. Therefore when the universe returns to Brahman it must inhere in Him as His power rather than as a defilement. Just as the evolutes of Prthivi (earth) do not defile it on their dissolution into their material cause (prthivi) at any time, so also the acetana universe or the jivas do not defile Brahman when they are dissolved into Him or return to Him respectively at the great pralaya²⁰⁵. As a power inhering in a substratum there must be a distinction between Brahman and the universe which is returned to Him. As we will see later, Nimbārka accepts a distinction in the case of the muktajīva and Brahman, although he is not very clear about the distinction of the material world, which is merged into Brahman.

22. Brahman is beyond karma

Although Brahman indwells in the created universe of both matter and spirit, He does not undergo the experience of pleasure and pain that the created world undergoes. The jivas undergo the experience of pleasure and pain on account of their karmas. These experiences do not affect Brahman because there is no karma in him. He is beyond the power of karma²⁰⁶. He is ever free from sins²⁰⁷. The activity of Brahman is not productive of karma. Karma affects the subtle body (śarīra), which accompanies the soul until it attains Brahman. Brahman has no such material body in Him²⁰⁸. He is free from all the properties of matter, including karma. Although Brahman indwells in all created objects, He transcends them all. Therefore nothing can tarnish His pristing purity²⁰⁹. There is no imperfection in Brahman who is the abode of all the auspicious qualities. Brahman who is the amsin does not experience the pleasure and pains of the jivas who are His amśas²¹⁰ because Brahman is nitya and nirguna. Just as the brightness of the light is not dependent on anything else, so also Brahman's purity is not dependent on another. Light is not affected by dirt. Because it is effulgent, light's brightness cannot be blackened by another.

This doctrine touches the very core of the *bhedābheda* philosophy, according to which there is both a *bheda* (difference) and an *abheda* (non-difference) relation between Brahman and the jīvas as well as between Brahman and the jagat²¹¹.

23. Brahman is the final goal

Brahman is not only the creator of the world, but also its final destiny. He is the origin and goal of all creation. He is the source of everything 212 and everything returns to Him^{213} . He is also the giver of salvation. He imparts to each one the just rewards for his deeds 214 . From Him alone arise both the bondage and the release of the $\operatorname{j\bar{i}va}^{215}$. He grants a direct vision of Himself to His $\operatorname{up\bar{a}sakas}$ (worshippers) 216 , who have been meditating on Him in accordance with the text " $\operatorname{\bar{a}tm\bar{a}}\operatorname{v\bar{a}}$ are $\operatorname{drṣtavyah}$ " ($\operatorname{Brh} 4.5.6$) 217 .

Conclusion

We may conclude that Nimbarka identifies Brahman with Ramākānta Vāsudeva Purusottama, who is, on the one hand, a mine of innumerable auspicious qualities and, on the other hand, devoid of all defects. He is eternal, immutable and partless and yet is the material cause of the world. The world is a projection of His power, which can be considered as the subtle, unmanifest aupanisadika prakrti. Since the world is an effect of Brahman it is real. The world depends on Brahman not only for its existence but also for its activities, for, it subsists in Him. Brahman not only indwells and rules the world, but also pervades and transcends it. The entire world is just a foot of Him, the world cannot contain Him. Yet He exists in every bit of this world. The world subsists in Him and cannot exist apart from Him. While Brahman is independent of the world for His existence and activities, the world is dependent on Him even for its existence. Brahman is the source and the final goal of the entire created universe.

Chapter 9

THE JĪVA AND THE JAGAT

Introduction

In the last chapter we have been considering Brahman the cause of both the jiva and the jagat. Now, in this chapter we are going to consider the jiva and the jagat and their respective nature as effects of Brahman. As we have seen above, creation or the production of the world is a mere vikṣepa of the śakti of Brahman. Prior to creation, therefore, the jiva as well as the jagat inhere in Brahman as His śakti. In the kāraṇāvasthā (the causal state of Brahman) the jiva and jagat are nothing but the śakti of Brahman. In the kāryāvasthā (as effects) they are "the evolutes" of Brahman and become manifest. Once created they are realities in their own right and are independent of each other, though dependent on Brahman.

1. What is jiva?

Of these two realities, the conscious reality is the jīva. It is an eternal reality. It has neither beginning nor end¹. As a śakti of Brahman, it is co-eternal with Him. It does not mean that the jīva is equal to or a rival of Brahman. It is only an amśa (part) of Him². The Saurabhakāra does not explain what he really means by an amśa of Brahman. That by amśa he does not mean a physical part can be inferred from the fact that he considers the jīva and the jagat in their kāraṇāvasthā as the śaktis of Brahman.

He bases his position on śruti and smṛti. He explains:

"On account of the wording of the sacred text" viz, 'A foot of him are all beings' (RV 10.90.3, $Ch\bar{a}nd$ 3.12.6), "the individual soul is a part of Brahman³. It is declared by smrti also that the individual soul is a part of Brahman. Thus "A part of my own self, in the world of men, has become the individual soul, the eternal" ($G\bar{t}t\bar{a}$ 15.7)4.

Here it is evident that the Saurabhakāra is following the Bhāgavata tradition, which considers the jīva as an amśa of the Supreme Being⁵. The Kaustubhakāra makes it clear that by amśa, the Saurabhakāra means only potency and not a physical part⁶. It is also proved by the above scriptural texts quoted by the Saurabhakāra.

As pointed out by the Saurabhakāra himself the amśāmśī (part and whole) relationship shows both the oneness (abheda) as well as the difference (bheda) between the jivas and Brahman⁷. The bhedābhedavada is the basic significance of this amśāmsī relationship between Brahman and the jīva. It is the reason why the Saurabhakara insists that the amśin (the whole i.e. the Brahman) is in no way contaminated by the experiences of pleasure, pain etc. of the amsas (the parts i.e. the jivas) just as light is devoid of the contaminations or qualifications that come to its parts⁸. The jiva experiences pleasure, pain, etc, under the influence of its own past deeds (karmas). As pointed out earlier, Brahman is free from the influence of karma. As arnsa of Brahman, the jiva also possesses the gunas like apahatapāpmatva9 which are the qualities of Brahman. But, in the state of bondage, these qualities are veiled and remain unmanifest because of the influence of its karmas as decreed by the Lord¹⁰.

In this connection it should be noted that according to Nimbārka and his school it is the influence of the *karma* that deludes the jīva and makes it experience pleasure and pain¹¹. The Saurabhakāra does not speak of any type of false knowledge (avidyā) or illusory appearance (māyā) as propounded by the Advaitins. Therefore avidyā in the Saurabha seems to mean the influence of the *karmas* on the jīva, as declared by the *śruti*, "It eats the fruit which is sweet" 12. It is under the influence of its own *karma* that the jīva assumes a new body in the subsequent births.

2. The jivas are equal

As amsas of Brahman, all the jivas are equal. They are all equally pure and conscious. There is no difference in their nature. Yet there are distinctions among them as Brāhmana and Sūdra etc13. These distinctions are secondary, depending on their association with the body. The jivas can be considered as pure or impure, Brahmana or Sūdra etc. on account of their connection with distinct bodies. The Saurabhakāra seems to accept that caste does not affect the nature of the jiva. Caste does not spring from the nature of the jiva, but from the type of the body which each jiva receives in accordance with the past karma. Nimbarka points out that we make a distinction between the fire that is brought from the house of a Srotriya (one who maintains the sacred fire) and the fire brought from a crematorium, although the nature of the fire is essentially the same 14. Just as the fire having the same nature can be considered as pure because of its association with a Srotriya and as impure because of its association with a crematorium, so also the jivas can be considered as pure and impure depending on its association with the body. But from the point of view of their nature not only is there no essential difference between the jivas among themselves, but also they share in the ontological essence of Brahman.

3. The jiva is a knower

The jīva is a self-conscious being. The Saurabhakāra seems to define the jīva when he states in Saurabha 2.3.18 "aham arthabhūta ātmā jñātā bhavati' (the ātmā which has the "I" as the content of its consciousness is a knower) 15. The sūtra reads "jño'ta eva". Nimbārka takes jñaḥ to mean jñātā (knower) 16. The jīva is an intelligent substance having jñānā (knowledge) as one of its essential attributes 17. This attribute of knowledge persists in all the states of consciousness including even the state of deep sleep 18. There is no contradiction in accepting that the jīva is a jñātā and at the same time it has jñānā as its quality. As far as the knowledge (jñānatva) is concerned there is a likeness (aviśeṣa) between them. There is also a distinction between them as between a substance and its attribute (dharma-dharmīsambandha) as

declared by the śruti "prajñayā śarīram āruhya" (Kauṣ 3.6) (having mounted the body by means of intelligence)¹⁹. Knowledge is a special quality present in the jīva, and it extends beyond, just as odour pervades its surroundings. Thus Nimbārka does not consider jñāna as constituting the essence of the jīva. Jñāna is only one of the essential attributes of the jīva.

4. The jiva is an agent

The jiva is an active agent²⁰. The scriptural injunctions like "Desirous of svarga, one should perform the sacrifice"21. desirous of salvation one should contemplate upon Brahman²², "understanding performs a sacrifice"²³ etc. require a conscious entity as the doer of actions. This conscious agent is the jiva²⁴. Otherwise all the above scriptural injunctions will be futile. They presuppose activity on the part of the jiva. Supposing that the jiva were not an agent what would be the consequences? The Saurabhakāra points out that in that case the samādhi (the state of deep contemplation) enjoined by the scripture would be the outcome of a non-sentient agent (acetana mātrāvuatirikta kartrka) which is impossible²⁵. The sense is that samādhi is obtained by a conscious agent after a long process of Brahmopāsana. Buddhi etc. cannot be such an agent, because buddhi is an unconscious principle according to the Sāmkhya theory²⁶. Further in the scriptural injunction "understanding (vijnānam) performs (tanute) sacrifice (yajñam)", the term vijñānam is used in the sense of the one having vijñānam that is to say the jīva and not in the sense of intellect, for, if it were so, then the term viinanam should not have been used in the nominative case but in the instrumental case (vijñānena)27. Therefore the jīva, which alone is a conscious principle, can be the agent of the scriptural injunctions regarding bhakti (devotion), mukti (liberation) and karma (Vedic action).

The jīva is the controller of the entire body and all its various functions 28 even in the state of deep sleep etc 29 . The jīva as declared by the *śruti*, moves about within its own body during the dream state. It takes away the cognitive powers of the sense organs and the vital airs $(pr\bar{a}na)$ with the help of buddhi and retires to sleep 30 . In deep sleep the jīva moves

about within its own body. The soul is an agent even in *mukti*. The scripture supports such a view when it says "He becomes a self ruler. He comes to have freedom of movement in all the worlds" ($Ch\bar{a}nd$ 7.25.2)³¹. Yet the soul is never (either in *mukti* or in *sainsāra*) an independent supreme agent. In fact the agentship of the jīva proceeds from Brahman, the Supreme Cause, who indweels within the jīva as the inner controller³². It means that the jīva is not an independent or sovereign master as Brahman. It is Brahman who makes the jīva to act in conformity with its own $karma^{33}$. Even in the state of mokṣa, where the jīva attains similarity (paramain sāmyam) with Brahman, the jīva does not become a sovereign principle³⁴. Such an absolute independence is an attribute of Brahman alone.

According to the Saurabhakāra the jīva is only an anukartā³⁵. He rightly chooses the word anukartā in order to show the dependence of the jīva on Brahman for all its actions. As pointed out earlier the term anukartā here seems to mean "the one who follows after" rather than "the one who imitates". The activities of the jīva depends on Brahman as the brightness of the moon on the sun as declared by the śruti 'tam eva bhāntam anubhāti sarvam" ³⁶. Here the Saurabhakāra seems to say that we are just instruments in Brahman's hand rather than that we act like Brahman in a smaller way.

When the Saurabhakāra speaks of the agentship of the jīva, he seems to accept a certain freedom of choice on the part of the jīva. Says the ācārya: "The soul acts or does not act according to its own wish, like a carpenter" and such a situation is possible "in both ways..." 37. But Nimbārka does not spell out what this freedom really means and how it is exercised. The Saurabhakāra accepts a certain amount of freedom of choice, yet he concedes that through some unseen force sometimes one is led to perform good deeds and sometimes bad deeds also 38. He does not discuss the actual influence of karma on the jīva in its freedom of choice. He does not say whether the karma of the jīva really affects the jīva or only the body which the jīva receives in accordance with its past karma. He does not explain how far the soul has freedom of action when the law of karma rules it 39.

5. The jiva is an enjoyer (bhoktā)

The fact that the jīva is a kartā demands that he must also be the bhoktā of all the good and the evil deeds he does⁴⁰. Since the jīva is both the kartā and the bhoktā both bondage and liberation can be attributed to jīva. For the jīva reaps the fruits of all its actions⁴¹. The soul also enjoys the dream objects, created by Brahman for it, in accordance with its karmas⁴². That the jīva is an enjoyer both during the conscious state of waking and dreaming is a matter of ordinary experience. Although the jīva is freed from all karmas, it is an enjoyer even in the state of mokṣa. This enjoyment in mokṣa is not a mundane one and therefore does not lead to further rebirths⁴³. The greatest of all the enjoyments for a jīva is the experience of Brahman in the state of liberation. We shall discuss the state of liberation in the next chapter.

6. The jiva is atomic

The individual self which is an $am\acute{s}a$ of Brahman is of atomic dimension $(anutva)^{44}$. The anutva of the jīva is declared by the $\acute{s}ruti$ in such texts like "By that light this soul departs through the eye or through the head or through other parts of the body"⁴⁵ in which the jīva is said to pass in and out of the body through such small opening like the eye etc⁴⁶. Only an atomic entity can pass through such a passage. The Saurabhakāra also points out⁴⁷ that there are direct declarations of the anutva of the jīva in the texts like "This atomic soul" (Munda 3.1.9) and "An individual soul is a part of the hundredth part of the tip of a hair, divided a hundredfold" ($\acute{S}vet$ 5.9).

Although this atomic jīva occupies only a small point in the body⁴⁸ yet like a drop of sandal wood paste, which can refresh the entire body, the jīva can enlighten the whole body⁴⁹. It can experience the various sensations of pleasure and pain of the entire body through its all-pervasive attribute of knowledge⁵⁰. The illumination of the body through the attribute of knowledge takes place as the illumination of a room by the light of a lamp. The atomic jīva, indwelling within the heart exercises complete authority over the entire body in conformity with the *śruti* text "He has entered up to the

body hairs and finger nails (Kaus 4.20)⁵¹. The jiva is the substratum that has this attribute of knowledge which has the power of extending beyond as in the case of fragrance.

7. The all-pervading attribute of the jiva

On the authority of the sruti the Saurabhakara has accepted that the jiva is atomic in size. But there are also sruti texts which declare the jiva to be eternal and all-pervading. For example, Munda 1.1.6 declares the soul as eternal and all-pervading. Now the problem is how to understand this śruti text. How could an atomic jiva be all-pervading like Brahman? Brahman, as we have seen above, is great and allpervasive by nature and He has equally great and allpervasive attributes as well⁵². According to the Saurabhakāra the vibhutva (all-pervasiveness) of the jiva is to be understood from the angle of its knowledge, which is one of its essential attributes. As we have seen above, the attribute of knowledge has the power of extending beyond as in the case of fragrance. The jiva, which has this attribute of knowledge can rightly be called all-pervasive. This attribute of knowledge lasts as long as the jiva itself lasts53.

The Saurabhakāra is not prepared to accept vibhutva (all-pervasiveness) as the essential nature of the jiva because the jiva cannot be all-pervasive on account of its being anu by nature⁵⁴. On the same ground he also rejects the allpervasiveness of the soul in spite of the fact that the individual souls are parts of the all-pervasive Brahman⁵⁵. He points out that the acceptance of sarvagatātmavāda (allpervasiveness) is open to many serious difficulties. If the jiva is all-pervasive by nature, there must be the consequence of either universal perception or universal non-perception on the part of the jiva. If the jiva is all-pervasive, then there will be either eternal contact with all the objects or there will be eternal non-contact with all the objects. In the former case, there will be eternal perception of all the objects and in the latter case there will be eternal non-perception of all things. since there is no other third principle outside the allpervasive jiva to bring about a contact. As a result, there will be the consequences of either eternal release (moksa) or eternal bondage (bandha) for the jiva⁵⁶.

The Saurabhakāra also points out that if the jīvas are allpervasive, they will be in contact with all the *karmas* with the result that there will be confusion of *karmas*. In order to avoid such fusion, one cannot take recourse to the doctrine of *adṛṣṭa* (unseen principle) because there is nothing else to assign a particular *adṛṣṭa* to a particular jīva⁵⁷. If the allpervasiveness of the soul is accepted there cannot be even the restriction with regard to the resolve "I shall do this, not that" to a particular jīva⁵⁸, because all the all-pervasive jīvas shall be included as indwelling in all the bodies⁵⁹. The reason is that if the jīva is all-pervasive, a particular jīva cannot be said to be joined to a particular body because no such restriction is possible for a universal jīva. Therefore the doctrine of the all-pervasiveness of the soul advocated by Kapila and others is defective⁶⁰.

The Saurabhakāra points out that it is due to the anutva of the jīva that there is no confusion of karmas and no universal perception or universal non-perception or an eternal release or eternal bondage. Since the jīva is of atomic nature all these are possible in spite of the jīvas being an amśa of the all-pervasive Brahman and in spite of its possessing the all-pervasive attribute of knowledge.

Under BS 2.2.34-36 the Saurabhakāra rejects the Jaina doctrine of the *dehaparimāṇa* (i.e. the doctrine which considers that the size of the soul changes according to the size of body) as it involves either incompleteness on the part of the jīva or its *vikāra* (change). He points out that if the constancy of the final size of the soul is accepted it would also mean that the initial and the intervening sizes of the soul are equally eternal. Thus the Saurabhakāra rejects the Kapila doctrine of the all-pervading soul as well as the Jaina doctrine of the *dehaparimāṇatva* of the soul.

8. The five states of the jiva

The jīva may experience the following five states during its earthly sojourn: waking (jāgrat). dreaming (svapṇa) deep sleep (suṣupti), swoon (mūrchā) and death (maraṇa). In the jāgrat state the jīva is a self-conscious ego, a knowing subject, an active agent and an enjoyer of its own karmas. In the svapnavasthā also the jīva is a conscious subject enjoying

the various and wonderful dream objects created by the Parameśvara. The Omnipotent and Omniscient Parameśvara, whose resolves are true (satya samkalpa), is capable of producing the wonderful dream objects according to the demands of the karmas of each jīva⁶¹. In some cases the dreams are indicative of future events⁶².

In the dreamless sleep (susupti) the jiva in some way enters into the Paramatman. In this state, the jiva after entering the vein and the pericardium, finally rests in the Paramatman in accordance with the śruti. "Then he comes to fall asleep in those veins" (Chānd 8.6.3): "Having crept out through them, he lies in the pericardium" (Brh 2.1.19). "That which is the ether within the heart, in that he lies" (Brh 4.4.22)63 In the susupti, though the jiva is a conscious subject, its attributes of knowledge etc. remain unmanifest unlike in the jagrat state⁶⁴. The coming back into the jagrat state from susupti is a returning from the Parameśvara⁶⁵. The very same jiva that went to sleep, and not a different one, arises again from sleep. The identity of the jiva in all these stages is proved from the fact that on rising from sleep, the jiva is able to recollect the work that it has done in the previous day and is able to complete it subsequently⁶⁶. Thus, there is identity of the person in these various states of consciousness. The śruti also supports this view, when it declares "Whatever they are in this world, whether tiger, or lion, or wolf or boar...or gnat or mosquito, that they become" (Chand 6.9.2). Above all, the injunction on sacrifice like "let one perform Agnihotra" (Maitri 6.32) and on upāsana like "let one meditate on the soul" (Brh 1.4.7) are meaningful only if there is the identity of the jiva throughout its various states67

Swoon $(m\bar{u}rcch\bar{a})$ is half death. In this state the jiva reaches half way to the state of death. The state of swoon cannot be included under susupti (deep sleep) or the state of death (marana). Therefore $m\bar{u}rcch\bar{a}$ is a distinct state. It is an unconscious state⁶⁸.

Finally, the state of death is experienced when the soul departs from the body. The Saurabhakāra explains three types of departure for the jīvas⁶⁹.

9. The kinds of jiva

The Saurabhakāra does not treat the types or categories of the jīvas as a special topic anywhere in the *Saurabha*. However, basing ourselves on his conceptions on jīva, we can validly infer that he considered that there are various types of jīvas.

- (a) The Saurabhakāra seems to consider the gods etc. as a special category of jīvas. They are above men⁷⁰. These deities can assume various bodies simultaneously⁷¹. These gods are also creatures. Prajāpati fashioned them in accordance with the Vedas⁷². These gods like Indra, Sun, Vasu, etc. have to meditate on Brahman, their inner controller⁷³, because of the possibility of a longing for Brahman on their part antecedent to their attainment of the respective offices in the future *kalpa* also through the *upāsana* of Brahman their *antaryāmin*⁷⁴.
- (b) There are again, certain special persons like Vasistha etc, who owing to certain past karmas, have been entrusted with a particular office like composing the Vedas etc⁷⁵. They remain as long as their office lasts. They can be considered as a special group of jivas. Because of their special office they seem to be born again even after obtaining knowledge.
- (c) The jīva assumes a human body in its samsārika existence since no jīva can live as a pure spirit in the state of samsāra. As we pointed out earlier the jīva assumes the body in accordance with its past karmas. The Saurabhakāra considers the caste distinctions as a result of the body that the jīva assumes in accordance with its past karma⁷⁶. Therefore this type of jīvas can be classified into four groups in accordance with the traditional four castes. Of these four castes, the Śūdra is not entitled even to hear the Vedas⁷⁷.
- (d) On the basis of the teachings of the *Saurabha*, the jīvas can be again classified as (1) the *vidvān* (knowers); (2) the doers of pious deeds and (3) the evil doers (aniṣṭādikārins). Different destinies await each of these types of jīvas⁷⁸. The knowers attain liberation after passing through the path of the gods, while the workers

of pious deeds are born again in this world in accordance with their past deeds, after enjoying the fruits of their meritorious deeds in the world of the moon, which they reach after travelling through the path of the Fathers. The evil doers seem to be eternally condemned⁷⁹. They are not worthy of going through the path of the gods (the way marked out for the *vidvān*) and the path of the Fathers (the way marked out for the doers of pious deeds). They seem to be born here as birds, insects and creepers without going to the other world.

10. The bondage of the jiva

The jīva does not exist in a purely spiritual or free state in this world. As long as the jīva lives in this world it is in bondage. The Saurabhakāra considers Brahman as the cause of bondage and liberation in accordance with the śruti text "The cause of transmigration, bondage, subsistence, salvation" (Śvet 6.16)80. The real nature of the jīva is concealed by the will of Brahman in accordance with the merits and demerits of the jīva⁸¹. When these merits and demerits are destroyed the real nature of the jīva will be manifested⁸². Nimbārka does not attempt to explain or to reconcile how on one hand, Brahman is the cause of the bondage and liberation of the jīva and, on the other hand, how the present state of bondage is solely due to the past karmas of the jīvas.

The good deeds and the bad deeds of the jiva produce their karma, which get attached to the sūksma śarira (the subtle body) of the jiva. At the rise of knowledge (jñāna) the karma that has not started producing its effects are destroyed and at the expiry of the effects of the prarabdha karmas the jiva is liberated. The sūksma sarīra follows the jīva in its travel through the path of the gods⁸³. The sense is that in spite of the decay of all the works and of the gross body the knower continues to retain the subtle body by the power of vidyā in order to go to the viśisthasthāna84. The jīva on its departure from the gross earthly body takes with it the subtle body also⁸⁵. The subtle body finally merges in the Highest⁸⁶. It is amply clear that the sūksma śarīra leaves the jīva only when the jiva attains Brahman. Otherwise, the sūksma śarira follows the jiva always. The sūksma śarīra is retained by the jiva until the jiva attains liberation⁸⁷.

Nimbārka says: "At the time of the soul's departure from the body, it completely abandons its merits and demerits. Why? Because after (its) separation from the body, there is no more experience "to be crossed" (i.e. to be undergone) through these two. This very thing others declare thus "Verily, when one is bodiless, pleasure and pain do not touch him" (Chānd 8.12.1). "This serene being, having arisen from this body, having attained the form of highest light, is completed in its own form" (Chānd 8.2.4, 8.12.3) and so on. This being so, the decay of works has actually taken place at the time of the soul's separation from the body. But according to śruti it is said to take place after the soul crosses the river Virajā as in the text "He crosses the river Virajā. Then he discards both the good and the evil deeds" 88.

Here Nimbarka considers that bhogabhava (absence of any enjoyment of pleasure and pain) is due to śarīrābhāva (absence of a body). Absence of a body is due to the absence of merits and demerits. Therefore bondage is the connection of the soul with a body as a result of the past karma. The karma is beginningless, that is to say, every subsequent rebirth is an outcome of the karmas of the previous births. The karmas of the previous births get attached to the soul through the sūksmaśarīra. But through the power of vidyā, as we shall see in chapter ten below, the past karmas that have not yet started yielding the effects are destroyed. The prārabdhakarmas are exhausted through experience in the present body, and no more new karmas get attached to the jiva. The jiva leaves the body with the sūksmaśarīra. This sūksmasárīra having the property of heat, (Saurabha 4.2.11) leaves behind the physical body cold. This sūksmaśarīra accompanies the soul on its journey through the path of the gods or of the Fathers. At liberation the sūksmasarīra is dissolved and merged into Brahman and obtains tadātmya with Brahman. On the one hand, without the sūksmaśarira no karmas can get attached to the soul and on the other hand, the mere presence of the sūksmaśarīra does not demand the presence of karmas. On the contrary the presence of karmas demands the existence of the sūksmasarīra. Also the absence of the sūksmasarīra shows the absence of karmas. Thus the liberated souls are completely free from karmas.

The birth of a person is the assumption of a physical gross body by the jīva. The origin or the end of the jīva in expressions like "one is born" or "one is dead" is predicated of the birth or death of the gross body. Therefore the jīva is said to be born or dead only in a secondary sense⁸⁹. What, in fact, is born or is dead is the gross body (sthūlaśarīra). The birth or the death of the body is metaphorically attributed to the jīva, which indwells in the heart⁹⁰. The jīvas being the amśas of the eternal Brahman are also eternal. They cannot be subject to birth and death. They are immortal.

The jiva is different and distinct from the body with its eleven sense organs, the vital breaths (prāṇa)91 etc. These sense organs have a material origin⁹² while the jiva is an immaterial and a conscious knower. These sense organs and the pranas are mere instruments of the jiva⁹³. Although the sense organs are initiated into their actions by the presiding deities, they are mere instruments under the complete control of the jiva94. There is an eternal relation of the master and the servant between the jiva and the sense organs. The soul is the enjoyer of the function of the sense organs in accordance with the śruti "Now when the eye has entered into the ether, that is the seeing person: the eye is for seeing" (Chānd 8.12.4)95. According to Nimbārka the senses are also of atomic dimension. They are different from the jiva who possesses them and they are also different from the prana which also serves the purpose of jiva.

11. The cause of bondage

As we have seen above, the cause of bondage is *karma*. In the *Saurabha*, *avidyā* also means the influence of one's *karma* on the jīva. Unlike in the Advaita, *avidyā* or *māyā* does not have the meaning of false or illusory appearance in the Nimbārka school. The jīva experiences pleasures and pain due to the influence of its past *karmas*, in accordance with the *śruti* "It eats the fruit which is sweet". (*Muṇḍaka* 3.1.1, *Śvet* 4.6)⁹⁶.

The Saurabhakāra considers the earthly existence as the result of one's past *karmas*. The earthly life is full of suffering. Even the pleasures that man enjoys not only on earth, but also in the world of the moon are ephemeral and transitory.

Man seems to be condemned to the apparently beginningless cycle of births and deaths, one birth giving rise to the next. This world is an ocean of suffering. Man's getting entangled in the web of worldly existence is the effect of avidyā and karma which is of his own making.

According to Nimbārka the condition of man is not that hopeless. From this worldly existence there is a way to liberation, a path to freedom. We will discuss it in the next chapter. Here we proceed to discuss what is the nature of the world in which man finds himself.

12. The world

Man exists in a material world which is created for the sake of the experience of the jīva. The Saurabhakāra accepts the reality of the world. According to him the universe is of inconceivable form. It has also manifold and wonderful combinations of objects. This universe is the abode of innumerable specialities of names and forms⁹⁷.

This wonderful universe is an evolution of Brahman. As we have seen above, the Saurabhakāra accepts an aupaniṣadikapradhāna from which this material world has originated⁹⁸. This aupaniṣadikapradhāna is not an independent principle, but is under the control of Brahman. It is brahmātmaka, that is to say, it vibrates with Brahman, who is its ātmā⁹⁹, its essence.

The Daśaśloki¹⁰⁰, attributed to Nimbārka, speaks of three types of material categories. DS verse 3 explains: aprākṛtam prākṛtarūpakam ca kālasvarūpam tad acetanam matam māyāpradhānādi pada pravācyam śuklādibhedaśca samepi tatra.

Thus the DS speaks of three types of material categories namely (1) aprākṛta (not derived from prakṛti); (2) prākṛta (derived from prakṛti) and (3) kāla (time). The Saurabha contains no such classifications. The Saurabha also does not describe māyā as the aupaniṣadika pradhāna. As pointed out earlier, Nimbārka accepts the aupaniṣadika pradhāna as the material supportive cause, which depends on Brahman for its existence.

13. The world is real

The Saurabhakāra asserts the reality of the world against

the Buddhist Vijñānavādins (the maintainers of the reality of consciousness) and the Sūnyavādins (Nihilists). Bādarāvana himself has refuted their views 101. The Saurabhakara agrees with the Sūtrakāra in his refutation of the Vijnānavādins and the Sūnuavādins. The Vijnānavādins deny the reality of the external objects distinct from their cognitions. Nimbarka points out that the position of the Vijñānavādins viz. there is no external objects, goes against our daily experience. We perceive external objects 102. The baselessness of the cognitions of the waking state cannot be established on the analogy of the dream-cognitions, because there is no parallelism between them. Besides, the dream consciousness has also a basis 103. Moreover, the doctrinal position of the Vijñānavādins that the variety in knowledge is due to the past impressions (vāsanās) is not tenable, for according to their view external objects are perceived 104 due to their impressions (vāsanā) on vijnāna. How could non-existent objects create impressions on consciousness? External objects are necessary to produce vāsanās. Nimbārka also points out that no past impressions could exist now, in order to impart their vāsanās on the vijnāna, because the vijñanavadins themselves subscribe to the doctrine of Ksanikavāda (doctrine of momentariness) 105.

Nimbārka refutes ¹⁰⁶ the *Mādhyamika Śūnyavāda* on the ground that it is totally unreasonable since it is contradicted by perception, inference etc. ¹⁰⁷.

Nimbārka is unaware of the Advaitic theory of the illusory appearance of the created world. Therefore there is no refutation of the Advaitic theory of $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ and of the illusory nature of the world in the $Saurabha^{108}$. As we have pointed out in chapter four above, Nimbārka, the Saurabhakāra is unaware of Śamkara and his philosophy.

As we have noted earlier the Saurabhakāra considers the world as an evolution from Brahman. He seems to accept that this evolution takes place from the subtle elements to the grosser ones. The material cause (upādānakāraṇa) of the entire universe, which certain śruti texts call the ajāprakṛti and which the Saurabhakāra prefers to call the aupaniṣadikapradhāna is nothing but Brahman, for, Brahman is the Inner Self of this prakṛti. The unconscious prakṛti

cannot be the controller of the created objects by entering into them.

Just as Brahman is the inner controller or soul of the ajāprakīti and of every created object, there are certain subordinate presiding deities over subtle elements and their production. The jagat (world) is supported by Brahman and is finally dissolved into Him.

Conclusion

Nimbarka accepts the metaphysical reality of the individual souls and of the material world. They owe their origin, existence and activities to Brahman who abides in them as their inner controller. They are brahmātmakas. Yet Brahman is not contaminated by their defects and limitations. He transcends them all. The jiva has, in its own finite way, its independence of activity and freedom of choice. Bondage is due to the influence of its past karmas. From a metaphysical point of view the jiva is an amsa of Brahman, yet it is of atomic size. All the perfections of the jiva are veiled by the effects of its past deeds in the form of avidya, which is also the cause of its earthly sojourn. In the final analysis the caste distinctions and social status are all due to karmas and they do not effect the essential nature of the jivas. All the jivas are essentially of the same nature, but each jiva is ultimately responsible for its life on earth and for its final destiny.

Chapter 10

THE FINAL DESTINY OF THE CREATED BEINGS

Introduction

We have seen that Nimbārka accepts the reality of the created beings. He is also convinced that there is a final destiny for the entire creation both conscious and unconscious. The destiny of the material world seems to be limited to the great *pralaya*, in which the entire material creation returns to Brahman¹ and remains in Him as His śakti.

When the sūkṣma śarīra of the liberated person merges in Brahman² the subtle elements (sūkṣma bhūta) get absorbed in Brahman. For, once liberated, the jīva does not return any more to this world. Thus, Nimbārka seems to say that the material elements can find their lasting repose in Brahman in and through man. These subtle elements attain tadātmyam³ with Brahman. Tadātmyam does not mean complete identity. Here it means that when matter is dissolved into Brahman at the great pralaya, matter remains in Brahman and has Brahman as its soul. Thus the bhedābheda relation between the material creation and Brahman is preserved even in the state of pralaya.

The jivas, who are not evil-doers, can definitely be liberated. This liberation (mukti) is the final goal of the life of the jivas on earth. The misery of embodied life can be removed by the destruction of karma. This final goal of the

jīva calls for the employment of proper means to attain it. What are these means?

A. Means to liberation

1. The Karma (works)

In the Saurabha, karma (works) means the Varnāsrama dharma. It consists in doing one's duties as demanded by one's caste and stage of life. Traditionally works are considered to be three kinds: daily obligatory duties, prudential duties and occasional duties. Of these the obligatory duties consisting of restraint of the senses, eating prescribed food, study of Veda etc. are common to all. The prudential duties are those prescriptions of the Veda, the performance of which leads one to this worldly as well as heavenly prosperities and happiness. Some of these duties are prohibitory in nature such as not killing a Brahmana, not committing adultery etc. The occasional duties are those rites to be performed on special occasions such as śrāddha (funeral rites) etc. Nimbārka does not speak anything systematically on these various types of duties and karmas⁴. But we can put together the scattered ideas he offers on karmas in various sections of his Saurabha.

a. Obligatory Duties

The Saurabhakara demands faithful observance of all the obligatory duties in accordance with one's caste and stage of life⁵. The proper performance of the duties incumbent on one's stage of life are necessarily to be practised, for example, the asrama dharma in accordance with the text "Hence, he who knows thus, having become calm, selfrestrained, indifferent, patient and recollected, should see the self in the self alone" (Brh 4.4.23)6. Scripture also declares that one must restrain oneself in one's food habits when it says "If there be purity of food, there is purity of life" (Chānd 7.26.2)7. The obligatory duties like offering sacrifices etc. are to be performed by every one, even by the one who does not desire salvation as the duties incumbent on his stage of life, since these sacrifices etc. are enjoined in the passage "He performs the Agnihotra sacrifice as long as he lives"8. Much more, they are to be performed by one who desires salvation⁹ in accordance with the *śruti* "The Brāhmaṇas desire to know the nature of Brahman by performing sacrifices, charity and austerities" (*Bṛh* 4.4.22). In the same way the muttering of prayers in accordance with the *smṛti*(Cf. *Manu* 2.87) is also to be performed by a Brāhmaṇa as a daily obligatory duty ¹⁰. Nimbārka points out that just as in the case of the householder in the passage "For having stayed thus as long as he lives, he reaches the world of Brahman and does not return any more" (*Chānd* 8.15.1) all religious duties, incumbent on all the stages of life, are obligatory ¹¹.

Thus, Nimbārka prescribes that each one must fulfil his duties demanded by his stage and state of life, whether one is a householder or a recluse in accordance with the *śruti*. "There are three branches of religious duty. Sacrifice, study and charity are the first, austerity alone is the second, a student of sacred knowledge living in the house of a preceptor and exhausting himself completely in the house of a teacher is the third. All these become possessors of the meritorious world" 12. According to Nimbārka there are three branches of religious duties (*dharmaskandha*) which are made explicit in *Chānd* 2.23.1 quoted above. They are the duties incumbent on the states of learning, of householder and of asceticism. Nimbārka prescribes all these duties as obligatory.

The Saurabhakāra does not consider that there is any impurity or sin in the killing of animals involved in the sacrificial *karmas* like *jyotiṣṭoma* etc. sanctioned by the sacred texts ¹³. These Vedic sacrifices are to be performed by a *mumukṣu* as a duty incumbent on his stage of life as demanded by the *śruti "yāvaj jūvam agnihotram juhoti"*. ¹⁴

b. Occasional duties

The non-performance of the incumbent duties is a sin of omission. Since the performance of occasional duties like śrāddha is incumbent on one's stage of life, they are recommended by the Saurabhakāra.

c. Prudential duties

Nimbārka does not favour the performance of the prudential duties by the one who is desirous of salvation. According to him these good deeds, aiming at selfish ends are

incompatible with salvation, just as sins are 15. These deeds generate *karma* which cling to the soul, demanding future births either to enjoy or to atone for them. The net result of these prudential duties is the acquisition of merit on account of which one will get this worldly as well as the other worldly happiness for which one will have to be born again.

The commission of actions prohibited by the Vedas and the non-performance of rites prescribed by them are sins. They too generate demerits, which is the cause for further painful existence. This is the case of the evil doers. Therefore a mumukṣu should refrain not only from performing prohibited actions but also from every thing that will generate karma. The omission of the prescribed duties and performance of prudential duties come under this category. Therefore they are to be avoided totally. But if they are performed by a Vidvān (knower), the karmas generated by these performances do not cling to him¹⁶.

According to the Saurabhakāra these good deeds, by themselves, are unable to lead anyone to liberation. They fulfil their purpose by just generating a desire for knowledge, for, karma (ritualistic action) is just a part of $Brahmajijn\bar{a}s\bar{a}$. By producing a desire for knowledge ($vidy\bar{a}$), the karmas indirectly assist in the rise of $vidy\bar{a}$, which is the only means for attaining Brahman¹⁷. The conscientious performance of the duties of one's state and stage of life will give rise to $vidy\bar{a}$ by purifying the mind. The Vedic sacrifices like agnihotra can be considered as auxiliaries to $vidy\bar{a}^{18}$. These sacrifices and other good works can be considered to serve a double purpose 19 . These good deeds are useful in removing sins. By removing sins they also protect $vidy\bar{a}$ from being overpowered by \sin^{20} . But by themselves these karmas are unable to liberate the soul from bondage or the cycle of birth and death.

We may conclude that Nimbārka does not consider *karma* as a real means for salvation. *Karma* is only an accessory or a helpful way. The purpose of the *karma* is not *mokṣa* (liberation), but the purification of the mind. Therefore all have to perform the *karmas* in accordance with the demands of his stage and state of life. Even a *Vidvān* (knower) has to perform them. Though *karma* is so essential, it is not the real means of salvation. It is only a help.

2. Jñāna

a. Vidyā is not a Karmānga

The Saurabhakāra considers $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ as the proper means of salvation. According to Nimbārka, salvation which consists of attaining Brahman is an outcome of $vidy\bar{a}^{21}$. This salvific $vidy\bar{a}$ is the result of a life-long process of meditation. It is not a product of karma but independent of $karma^{22}$. Karma is always subservient to $vidy\bar{a}^{23}$, so much so a $Vidv\bar{a}n$ is encouraged to give up voluntarily the life of a householder 24 . The fruits of the karma is quite different from the fruits of $vidy\bar{a}^{25}$.

Jaimini considers *vidyā* to be a part (*anga*) of *karma* because there is a question of the purification of the agent, who is a subsidiary part of the rituals²⁶. Such a position is defended by him on the basis of the *śruti*²⁷ and the conduct (*ācāra*) of Janaka²⁸ who is said to have performed a sacrifice in which many presents were given out. There are some texts which seem to subordinate *vidyā* to *karma*²⁹, such as "knowledge and work lay hold of him" (*Br,h* 4.4.2) and "Only doing work here, let one desire to live a hundred years" (*Īśā* 2). Nimbārka is not prepared to make any concession to the doctrine of Jaimini. He holds that the *summum bonumo* f man arises in knowing Brahman, who is the *sarveśvara* and the *sarvaniyantā* as declared by the scriptures³⁰.

edge. This knowledge alone brings liberation. ³⁸ In the blazing fire of *vidyā* the accumulated (*sañcita*) karmas are burnt away. The *Vidvā*ndoes not acquire any more karmas (āgāmya). But the karmas that have already begun to operate (the *prārabdhakarma*) resulting in the present body will continue to run its full course just as the wheel of the potter continues revolving for some time even after he stops turning the wheel.

Therefore, the only direct means to liberation is *vidyā*. For, *vidyā* alone can destroy the already accumulated *karmas* and prevent all further accumulations as well. Without the destruction of *karma* (the merit and demerit of past actions leading to further births) release (*mokṣa*) is not possible.

b. The source of vidyā

The śāstra, which is the source of Brahmajñāna is also the source of salvific vidyā. Hearing (śravaṇa), reflection (manana) and meditation (nididhyāsana) are to be constantly employed for the rise of vidyā. Of these, hearing consists in listening to the scriptural instructions about Brahman from one's own teacher. Reflection on what is heard namely, the scriptural instructions, is the next step. Constant meditation on Brahman, is the final step in the acquisition of vidyā.

c. Who are qualified for Brahmavidyā

As we have seen above, every one except the Śūdra is entitled to study the scriptures³⁹. It is the firm stand of Nimbārka that the Śūdra has no right for *Brahmopāsana* or *Brahmavidyā*. He is denied the right to study the Śāstra⁴⁰.

There is another group of people who are denied every right to *Brahmavidyā* by Nimbārka. They are those religious students, bound to perpetual chastity (*naiṣṭhika brahmacārins*) but have lapsed or given up their commitment to perpetual chastity. They are already condemned⁴¹. No penance can atone for their misconduct⁴². They are considered to be slayers of themselves and are automatically excluded from the knowledge of Brahman.

The Saurabhakāra prescribes strict regulations on purity of food for all those who seek Brahman, because the purity of life is dependent, to a great extent, on the purity of

food⁴³. A seeker of *Brahmavidyā* cannot lead a wanton life. He must not drink wine at all⁴⁴. Nimbārka is prepared to make a concession in the extreme case, namely, the danger to life. In such an extreme case of life and death, one is permitted to eat even the *ucchiṣta* (food left over by others). Nimbārka contents that such an attitude towards food is based on both the *śruti* and the *smrti*⁴⁵.

d. Need of Guru for the study of the scripture

For a proper study of the scriptures, the help of a spiritual preceptor is needed. One studies the Veda in the house of a guru. Nimbārka demands whole-hearted devotion to the śrīguru⁴⁶. His statement that the spiritual preceptor is the only god (ācāryaika deva) seems to mean that one must not have two masters. Perhaps according to Nimbārka one should not go from one teacher to another in one's enthusiasm for Brahmavidyā. Nimbārka does not elaborate the attitude one should have towards one's guru. Nor does he describe the qualities and aptitudes of a good guru who will lead the disciple on the path of Brahmavidyā.

Since the path of knowledge is like the sharpened edge of a razor, hard to traverse⁴⁷, there is all the more need of a competent *guru* who will lead the disciple on the right path. With the help of the *guru*, the seeker of *Brahmavidyā* is able to follow the upanisadic method of *śravana*, *manana* and *nididhyāsana*⁴⁸, which will lead him to the realization of the ultimate truth. The Upanisadic tradition also shows that only under the guidance of a competent *guru*, one can attain final liberation when it says *ācāryavān puruso veda tasya tāvad eva ciram yāvan na vimokṣye atha sampatsye*⁴⁹.

e. What is vidyā

Under the guidance of a competent guru one continues with the process of $nididhy\bar{a}sana$. In this meditation the mumuksu considers the $Param\bar{a}tman$ as one's own self $(svasy\bar{a}tmatvena)^{50}$. The guru instructs him in accordance with the teaching of the earlier gurus recorded in the scriptures namely "This is my $\bar{a}tman^{51}$ (eṣa $me\ \bar{a}tm\bar{a}$) and "This is your $\bar{a}tman^{52}$. This process of meditation does not bring about a mere metaphysical or scientific knowledge, but an experience and awareness of one's own $bhed\bar{a}bheda$ relation

with Brahman. Therefore, one should meditate on one's own real self as it is in the freed state (muktāvasthā), freed from all bondage of sins and imperfections, for the jīva becomes that very form which it has been meditating on⁵³. The jīva is to be meditated on as in the state of freedom, for in liberation the jīva is to attain such a state.⁵⁴ This meditation on the self should in no circumstance be on the self as in the state of bondage⁵⁵ or on any symbol⁵⁶. The meditation on the symbol does not lead the mumukṣu to the realization of his bhedābheda relation with Brahman nor to the attainment of Brahman, because such symbols are not the ātman of the upāsaka⁵⁷. The symbolic meditation has only a limited result⁵⁸.

The meditation on Brahman must be on the real nature of Brahman. Brahman is to be meditated on as distinguished from the jīva, because Brahman passes beyond all the limitations of the jīva 59 . The highest $vidy\bar{a}$ is the realization of the $bhed\bar{a}bheda$ relation between the self and Brahman, the Highest reality.

As we have pointed out in chapters one and two, the Saurabhakāra does not advocate, as a means of liberation, any meditation on, much less any exclusive worship of, Kṛṣṇa or Rādhā as proposed in DS6, SNKS 1, 3, 5, 7, 16, 18 and 25. Were he a Rādhākṛṣṇa worshipper he ought to have propagated some form of Rādhākṛṣṇa cult as a means of liberation for the jijnāsu.

f. Upāsana (meditation)60

The salvific *vidyā* is not something intellectual. It is something deep and experiential, entering into the very reality of the jīva. This experience, as we have seen above, is achieved through *upāsana* or *dhyāna* (meditation). Therefore meditation contributes the lion's share in the rise of *vidyā*, although ultimately the final goal of man (*Puruṣārtha*) arises from the *Sarveśvara*⁶¹ (Lord of all).

This *upāsana* or *dhyāna* is the continuous and uninterrupted thought on the *ātman* and the Brahman without being distracted by any other thoughts. This meditation consists in the concentration of the mind on Brahman as one's own Supreme Self or the Inner Controller⁶². It directly generates

on the *upāsaka* the awareness of his own *bhedābheda* relation with Brahman.

This process of meditation has two sides. We may say that there are meditations of which the jīva is the visaya (object) and meditations that have Brahman as the visaya. When the jīva is the visaya of meditation, it must be meditated on as in the state of liberation⁶³. The self is not to be searched in symbols (pratīkas) because they are not the real $\bar{a}tman$ of the $up\bar{a}sitr$ (the seeker)⁶⁴.

Similarly Brahman should not be sought for in a symbol. Brahman, who is all-pervasive can be viewed in all things, even in a minute thing as the mind (manas). A minute thing like the mind can be viewed as Brahman, but Brahman who is all-pervasive cannot be viewed as the mind, because Brahman transcends them all⁶⁵. This meditation of which Brahman is the object can be of various types in accordance with the qualifications of the *upāsaka*.

g. The types of Brahmopāsanas

There are various branches of Upaniṣadic tradition. These traditions describe distinct types of $Brahmop\bar{a}sanas$ meant for their own respective followers. These $up\bar{a}sanas$, belonging to different branches of $\acute{s}ruti$ have their own special features. The Saurabhakāra asserts that these various $up\bar{a}sanas$ such as $\acute{Sandilya}^{66}$, $Pr\bar{a}na^{67}$, $Udg\bar{i}tha$, 68 $Dahara^{69}$, $Vaisv\bar{a}nara$ $vidy\bar{a}^{70}$ etc⁷¹ are different procedures in themselves and therefore are different in themselves meant for different $adhik\bar{a}rins$. They are prescribed in view of the differences among the $up\bar{a}sakas$.

Although these various procedures of *upāsana* are different among themselves they have the same object for meditation, namely Brahman⁷². These various types of *Brahmopāsanas* are identical in so far as their object is concerned. They all lead to the same result, namely the attainment of Brahman. Since their results are the same, there is option of performance (*anustḥāna vikalpa*). Any of them will lead the *upāsaka* to Brahman⁷³.

Nimbārka seems to accept a *bhedābheda* relation between these various types of *Brahmopāsanas*⁷⁴ prescribed for different *adhikārins* in accordance with their *śruti* tradition.

On the one hand he asserts the distinctions and differences between the various types of *Brahmopāsanas* as described for distinct *adhikārins*. On the other hand, he also upholds their sameness on account of the sameness of their object and the sameness of their result.

h. Samagropāsana

Since the various Brahmopāsanas described in various branches of Upanisadic tradition are one and the same from the point of view of the sameness of the object of meditation as well as of the result, namely, Brahman, the special features of one upasana can be extended to the others. Therefore in every meditation on Brahman all the essential qualities and attributes of Brahman are to be included 75. Such qualities are bliss (anandatva)76, non-grossness (asthūlatva)⁷⁷ imperishability⁷⁸, freedom from sin⁷⁹, having true desire⁸⁰, consisting of knowledge⁸¹, controller of all⁸², lord of all⁸³, etc. Such essential qualities of Brahman are to be included in all the meditations on Brahman, irrespective of their being specially mentioned in a particular type of upāsana, set forth in a particular branch of the Upanisadic tradition. The vidyas being the same, all these special features are to be combined together as in the case of what is complementary to the injunction with regard to the Agnihotra etc84. This type of meditation is called samagropāsana. It is praised as the most effective and excellent type of meditation85

But there are many accidental or non-essential qualities of Brahman described in some types of *Brahmopāsanas*. These non-essential qualities like "having joy for His head" etc. need not be included in all the meditations on Brahman⁸⁶.

i. The posture and place of upāsana

The *upāsana* is carried out in a sitting posture. Such a posture is favourable for meditation. The *upāsaka* can remain in this posture without any distractions and movements. Concentration of the mind is easily possible in a sitting posture⁸⁷. There is no special restriction as to the place of meditation. Meditation is easily practised in a solitary place where there is no possibility of distractions. One is free to choose a suitable place for *dhyāna*⁸⁸. One must

continuously practice meditation, until death as declared by *śruti* "Verily, having stayed thus as long as he lives" (*Chānd* 8.15.1).⁸⁹

j. The rise of vidyā

As a result of prolonged meditation on the self and the Brahman, the salvific knowledge ($vidy\bar{a}$) will rise in this life if there are no obstacles present⁹⁰. What are these obstacles? The Saurabhakāra does not elaborate them. He mentions pride as an obstacle to the rise of $vidy\bar{a}^{91}$. The more one advances in his spiritual realization the humbler he becomes. A truly great ascetic always remains as simple as a child. The greater his learning the less he speaks in accordance with the sruti "Hence let a Brāhmaṇa, being disgusted with the states of childhood and learning, become a muni" (Brh 3.5.1)⁹². The more he advances in the process of Brahman realization, the calmer he becomes. A muni is the one who has advanced both in his learning as well as in profound meditation⁹³.

The commentator Śrinivāsa explains the meaning of reaching a *child like state*. According to him, it means that as one advances in one's quest for self realization, one becomes free from arrogance (dambha), pride, (darpa), self consciousness (abhimāna)⁹⁴ in accordance with the *śruti* "Not one who has not refrained from bad conduct, not one who is not tranquil, not one who is not composed, not one who is not of peaceful mind, can obtain Him even through intelligence" (*Katha* 2.24).

Śrīnivāsa also considers that the obstruction to the rise of $vidy\bar{a}$ includes works which are dependent on particular place and time and are about to produce results other than knowledge⁹⁵. Since Nimbārka does not explicitly state what are these obstructions to the rise of knowledge we may presume on the basis of the doctrinal position of Śrīnivāsa that certain types of karmas were considered obstacles for the rise of salvific $vidy\bar{a}$ in the early Nimbārka tradition.

We may also add that those qualities and attitudes that are unbecoming of a *mumukṣu* are also real obstacles to the rise of *vidyā*. The Saurabhakāra in *Saurabha* 1.1.1 has given a detailed list of those who are really qualified for

Brahmajijñāsā. Therefore, all the contrary qualities may be counted as real obstacles to the rise of vidyā.

According to the Saurabhakāra if the obstacles to the rise of $vidy\bar{a}$ are present in the life of an $up\bar{a}saka$, then $vidy\bar{a}$ arises only at the destruction of these obstacles in the next life⁹⁶. He brings in the example of Nāciketas, who obtains the salvific knowledge from Yama in the next world⁹⁷.

At the rise of vidua, as a result of constant dhuana, all the karmas are destroyed98, that is to say, all the previous good and bad deeds which have not yet taken effects are destroyed instantly⁹⁹. But those deeds whose effects have already begun their fruition are to be borne by the Vidvan through experience 100. At the destruction of the fruits of the karma, he attains Brahman. The result of vidyā, namely, mukti, may originate immediately after the fall of the present body but there is no restriction with regard to the fruit of vidyā. 101 If the work which have begun to bear fruits be absent then the fruit of knowledge i.e. mukti, belonging to the knower, arises after he is freed from the present body-but if they are present, then after he is freed from still another body. It may demand many more births to exhaust the prārabdha karmas through experience. That seems to be the reason why Nimbārka says that there is no fixed rule as to the rise of salvation.

k. Upāsana and bhakti

The Saurabhakāra identifies *dhyāna* with *bhakti* when he says that Brahman is revealed in meditational *(dhyāna)* devotion *(bhaktiyoga)*¹⁰². Since the Saurabhakāra was a Vaiṣṇava belonging to the tradition of the *Bhagavadgītā*, he seems to say that the *dhyanā* (meditation) one undertakes in order to acquire the salvific knowledge must be accompanied by *bhakti*. There is always an element of devotion and surrender in the *Gītā*. ¹⁰³ Therefore the statement of Nimbārka "bhaktiyoge dhyāne tu vyajyate brahma" (But Brahman is revealed in devotional meditation) would mean that the entire process of meditation is carried out with devotion and commitment. As a result Brahman reveals himself to the *upāsaka*. The sense is that the direct vision of Brahman

results from the incessant repetition of the means consisting in perfect meditation" 104.

It is to be noted that the Saurabha does not speak of bhakti as an independent means of liberation. Today the Nimbārka Sect is a bhakti dominated religious group. The Daśaślokī verse 9 speaks of premaviśeṣalakṣaṇā bhakti. Such a doctrine is totally alien to the Saurabhakāra. As pointed out earlier, Nimbārka does not speak of the loving tender aspect of Brahman. So also the premaviśeṣalakṣaṇā bhakti is not found in the Saurabha. But later Nimbārkites have developed a full-fledged doctrine of Bhaktimārga. Puruṣottama in his Vedāntaratnamaṇjūṣā¹⁰⁵, Puruṣottama Praṣāda Vaiṣṇava in his Śrutyantakalpavallī¹⁰⁶ and Giridhara Prapanna in his laghumaṇjūṣā¹⁰⁷ have developed the various forms and types of Bhakti. Prominent among them are parābhakti, aparābhakti and sādhanarūpikā bhakti.

Similarly, as we have discussed in chapter two, there is no mention of *prapatti* (complete self-surrender of the devotee to the Lord) or *gūrupasatti* (self-surrender of the disciple to his preceptor) in the *Saurabha*. *Prapatti* and *gurūpasatti* are the natural but gradual developments in the *bhaktimārga*. The mere fact that the Saurabhakāra does not speak of them nor considers *bhakti* as an independent means for liberation of the jīva may point to the antiquity of the *Saurabha*. The doctrine of *prapatti* is contained in *Daśaślokī* verse 8. Its developed form is found in *PK* verses 4,5-15, 19, 22, 24 and 25. In the same way the doctrine of *gurūpasatti* as a powerful means for salvation is well developed in *MRS*.

It seems that doctrines of premaviseṣalakṣaṇābhakti, prapatti and gurūpasatti came to the Nimbārka sect at a later period. Since the Saurabhakāra does not consider them as sādhanas (means) for the liberation of the jīva, he seems to be unaware of them, or even if he was aware of them, he did not mention them in the Saurabha. It is more logical to hold that he did not consider them as of any help in the realization of the final goal of man. It may also be pointed out that the Saurabhakāra who insists on vidyā as the only means to mokṣa and considers karma (i.e. ritualism of the Vedic tradition) as useful only in so far as it will produce a desire for vidyā through purification of imperfections, would also

speak of the relative importance or role of *prapatti* and *gurupasatti* had he been aware of them.

3. Prasāda (grace)

As we have noted above Nimbarka considers Brahman to be the cause of both bondage and liberation of the soul. (Saurabha 3.2.5). One of the basic qualifications in order to undertake the arduous task of Brahmaiijñāsā is an intense desire for the prasada (grace) of Bhagavan 108. The prasada of Bhagavan seems to be the ultimate cause of the liberation of the soul. For, the final enlightenment is a gratuitous gift from the Lord. According to Nimbarka "when the knower comes to be 'favoured' by the object to be known (viz. the Lord) who has become pleased through the might of (his) knowledge and through the application of the remembrance of the path which is a supplementary part of that (viz. knowledge) - then there results "a lighting up of the forepart of his abode" viz. the heart. Then, with the door revealed by the Highest Lord, he, knowing that vein, departs through it"109.

From the above statement of the Saurabhakara it can be inferred that as a true Bhagavata Vaisnava, belonging to the tradition of the Bhagavadaita, he accepted the importance and role of God's grace in the whole process of liberation 110. Brahman is the source and the end of the work of liberation. Perhaps He Himself puts the icchā (desire) for His grace in the heart of His devotees. That would be the meaning of the phrase when the knower comes to be favoured by the vedya (the object to be known). It is under the protecting guidance and providence of the Lord that the devotee proceeds in the path of knowledge through constant remembrance of the Lord. Seeing the earnestness and commitment of the upasaka the Lord finally enlightens him and reveals the door of salvation to him. Departing through it the upasaka attains Brahman Himself. Thus the Lord becomes the source and the goal of the process of liberation.

B. The life of a Vidvān

Even after the rise of vidyā the Vidvān continues to live until the prārabdhakarman is destroyed through experi-

ence. In the blazing fire of vidyā the accumulated (sañcita) karman is burnt away. And after the rise of vidyā there is no more acquisition of further karmas. But the karmas which have already begun to operate (prārabdha) giving existence to the present body will continue. Therefore the Vidvān must continue to perform his own āśrama karmas such as agnihotra, dāna, tapa etc. because, as we have seen, they foster vidyā¹¹¹. But there is no more any clinging of the subsequent karma to the Vidvān. He is above good and evil. As water does not cling to lotus leaf, so evil deeds do not cling to the one who knows reality¹¹². The effects of his puṇya and pāpa whose fruits are not yet produced, are divided among his friends and enemies respectively at his departure from this world¹¹³.

C. Salvation after the prārabdhakarmans exhausted

From a metaphysical point of view, Nimbarka cannot accept a state of liberation, simultaneous with the rising of vidyā which is technically called the "jīvan mukti", because muktifor him is the union of the soul with God after death 114. His understanding of mukti is based on the cosmic theme of the Upanisads where both the world and the jivas are real and are distinct from Brahman, who is a personal God. The experience of enlightenment or the state of vidyā cannot be considered as mukti in its strict sense. There cannot be any complete freedom in the bodily existence. Even after the acquisition of the state of vidyā, the prārabdhakarman continues its course of action and brings to completion the retributive experience 115. Although vidyā may rise during the embodied state of the jiva, the real fruit of vidyā, namely, salvation, is possible only when the prārabdhakārman is destroyed and the jiva is liberated from the body. The Vidvan can really experience brahmasāksātkāra in the videha (bodyless) state 116. The scriptural declaration of "the immortality" of the knower here and now in the text "when all those desires which abide in the heart are loosened, then a mortal becomes immortal" (Brh 4.4.7) really means that a knower's prior sins are destroyed and subsequent sins do not attach to him any more, and not that his connection with

the sense organs and the like is destroyed all at once¹¹⁷. Therefore, Nimbārka does not accept the possibility of liberation in the embodied state.

D. Death

When all the prārabdhakarmans are exhausted through experience, death occurs. After death, the knowers follow the path of the gods¹¹⁸, which leads them finally to Brahman. The pious workers, who follow the path of the Fathers 119, will be born again in accordance with their karma, after a period of sojourn in the world of the moon where they enjoy the fruits of their deeds. The third type of the jivas, namely, the evil-doers (anistādikārin)120 do not follow either the path of the gods or the path of the Fathers. They go to a third place. The Saurabhakāra seems to deny their rebirth as human beings, when he quotes the text "now through neither of these two paths, these small manytimes-returning creatures are born. "Be born and die". This is third place. Thereby this world is not filled up". (Chand 5.10.8)¹²¹. The Saurabhakara does not explain what is the nature of this third place waiting for the evil-doers. He is also equally silent on the path that leads the jivas to this place. Nor does he describe how the souls return from such a place. Although he does not describe the categories and forms of life into which these sinners are reborn, he seems to accept that they are born as worms, gnats etc. in accordance with Chand 6.9.2122

The process of death begins with the merging of the sense of speech with the mind 123 . Then one after another all the senses are merged with the mind 124 . Once the senses are connected with the mind the mind in turn gets connected with the vital breath, and the vital breath with the $j\bar{i}va^{125}$, then the $j\bar{i}va$ with all the subtle elements 126 . Up to this stage there is similarity between the departure of the pious worker and a $Brahmop\bar{a}saka^{127}$ in accordance with the sruti "There are a hundred and one veins of the heart, of these, one goes out through the crown of the head. Going up through it, one goes to immortality. The others are for departing in other direction" ($Ch\bar{a}nd$, 8.6.6).

1. The departure of the pious worker: the path of the Fathers (Pitr yana)

At death the soul of the pious worker, accompanied by the sense organs and surrounded by the five sūkṣmabhūtas (subtle elements) such as water, which constitute the potentials for the new body to be assumed in the next birth, leaves the present body in order to enjoy the fruits of its karma in the world of the moon¹²⁸. The jiva leaves the body through the eye or any other external opening. Once out of the body, the soul follows the path of the Fathers, which begins with the smoke.

On the way of the Fathers, after the smoke comes the night. Then follow the dark half of the moon, the six months of the sun's southern progress, the world of the Fathers and finally the moon, successively 129. In the world of the moon, the jīva enjoys the fruits of its *karmas* meant for the other worldly enjoyments. After the decay of these *karmas*, which produce their fruits in the moon, the jīva returns to the earth with the remainder of its *karmas* still clinging to it and which are to bear their fruits in this world 130.

On its return journey to the world, the jīva becomes associated with or similar 131 to $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$ (ether), then $v\bar{a}yu$ (air), $dh\bar{u}ma$ (smoke), abhram (mist) and megha (cloud) successively. The cloud pours the jīvas down to the earth together with the rain. Thereafter the jīvas get associated with the food producing vegetables like rice, barley, sesamum etc. for a longer period than with the previous substances like $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$ etc. These food substances in their turn, are eaten by men and animals. As a result the jīvas become associated with the would be male genitor. In his explanation of how the jīva becomes reborn on earth in accordance with its past karma the Saurabhakāra follows the imagination of the Upaniṣadic sages.

2. The departure of the Vidvan (the path of the gods)

Unlike the jiva of the pious worker which leaves the body through the eye or any other external openings, the jiva of a knower leaves the body through the vein which passes out of the crown of the head. The Lord Himself, pleased with the knower, lights up the tip of this vein, and as a result, the

knower can easily recognize it 132 . The soul passes out through this vein, which is directly connected with the rays of the sun. The soul ascends up through the rays of the sun 133 which is the first stage on the path of the gods (deva yāna).

The knower discards his merits and demerits ¹³⁴ completely at the time of his death ¹³⁵. The Saurabhakāra accepts that this decaying of the *karmas* actually take place at the very moment of the departure of the soul, because there is no more experience to be crossed, although the scripture speaks of such a decaying only at the crossing of the river Virajā. ¹³⁶ The description of the decay of *karmas* means that the knower's prior sins are completely destroyed and subsequent actions do not produce any more *karmas* ¹³⁷.

In spite of the decay of the *karmas* at the moment of the departure of the *Brahmopāsaka*, the description of the path is appropriate¹³⁸ because he retains the *sūkṣma śarīra* (subtle body) a fact clearly implied in the description of the jīva's relation to a body in the texts like "Having attained the form of supreme light, he is completed in his own form" (*Chānd* 8.3.4). "He roams about there, laughing, playing and enjoying" (*Chānd* 8.12.3). The jīva is able to retain its relation to the *sūkṣma śarīra* by the power of *vidyā* in order to go to the *viśiṣṭa sthāna* (special place) meant for him, when he attains *brahmabhāva*¹³⁹.

The journey through the path of the gods to the world of Brahman is common to all the Brahmopāsakas 140. The successive stages, after ascending the rays of the sun on the path of the gods are the light, the day, the bright fortnight. the six months of the northern progress of the sun, the year, the air - otherwise called the world of gods, the moon, the lighting, the world of Varuna, the world of Indra and the world of Prajāpati¹⁴¹. The attaining the rays of the sun, which is the initial step on the path of the gods is not impossible even if one were to die at night or during the sun's southern progress owing to the cessation of one's connection with karman 142. The real obstacle to attain the path of gods is not darkness, but the existence of karman. When karman is removed the soul can easily attain the path of the gods. Therefore there is no restriction with regard to the proper time for death.

The presiding deity of each particular stage leads the soul to the next stage. When the jiva reaches lightning, the presiding deity of lightning, an immortal person, leads the soul to the world of Varuṇa. This immortal person continues to lead the soul in later stages to the world of Indra, Prajāpati and finally to the world of Brahman¹⁴³.

E. The final goal

The Sūtrakāra answers 144 the interesting eschatological question whether the devayana involving progress and attainment applies to the realization of the parabrahman (supreme Brahman) or the Karyabrahman (the effected Brahman), (who is the Hiranyagarbha). Badari takes the object of the Vidvan's going as the effected Brahman alone because going to the effected Brahman alone is reasonable (BS 4.3.6-10). Movement to the effected Brahman who is said to be occupying a particular place as expressed in the text "In those worlds of Brahman dwell the highest, possessed of the highest" (Brh 6.2.15) is more reasonable. Badari also points out that Hiranyagarbha is very near to the Supreme Brahman. Owing to the proximity, the first born of the absolute is referred to as the absolute. Both the śruti145 and smrti146 declare the eventual liberation of the worshippers of kāryabrahman who have attained him, when the world of kāruabrahman is dissolved at the great dissolution.

Jaimini, on the other hand, considers that the *Vidvān* goes to the *Parabrahman* (the highest Brahman) since the Brahman in the text "Leads them to Brahman" (*Chānd* 4.15.5) primarily refers to the *Parabrahman* (*BS* 4.3.11-13). Besides the texts like "having attained the form of highest light, he is completed in his own form" (*Chānd* 3.2.23) show that the object to be attained is the *Parabrahman*. Moreover the topic of discussion in the text "I reach the court of Prajāpati, the Chamber" (*Chānd* 8.14.1) is not the effected Brahman, but the highest Brahman.

Bādarāyaṇa follows a *via media* in this dispute (*BS* 4.3.14-15). Nimbārka considers the view of Bādarāyaṇa as stating the *siddhānta* view and the opinion of both Bādari and Jaimini as the *pūrvapakṣa*. He relies on the *Chānd*, 3.14.1 which says "Just as the intention a man has in this world, so

alone does he become after departing. "This text shows that there is a close relation between the nature of desire and its realization. An upāsaka may meditate on the Highest Brahman as well as on their own imperishable nature as having Brahman for its essence. Such an upāsaka attains the highest Brahman. On the other hand those who meditate on Kāryabrahman may accordingly be led to the Kāryabrahman, According to Nimbārka the view that it leads only those who meditate on the Kāryabrahman contradicts the scriptural text "Having risen from the body, having attained the form of highest light" (Chand 8.12.3), while the view that it leads only those who meditate on the Parabrahman goes against another text "Those who know thus and those who meditate on faith and penance in the forest reach light". Therefore, Nimbarka considers all those who are not dependent on symbols are led to Brahman in accordance with their intention. Those who rely on symbolic meditation have a different result, independent of going through the path of light etc. in accordance with the text "As far as name goes, so far he comes to have freedom of movement" (Chānd 7.1.5).

F. The state of moksa

In Indian tradition there are different conceptions of the final liberation (mokṣa) of the jīva. Different systems and even each school within the systems have their own different understanding of the state of mokṣa¹⁴⁷. Three of these traditions find their expression in the Brahmasūtras. They are:

1. The tradition of the theistic Vaiṣṇava (and Śaiva) religions which identify the Supreme Being with Viṣṇu (or Śiva). *Mokṣa* is considered to be the attainment of the absolute, Supreme Being. In this tradition the Supreme Being is a Personal God. He is, on the one hand, full of supernatural qualities, and on the other hand, devoid of all defects. *Mokṣa* is considered to be the attainment of this loving Personal God by the devotee. There is no merging of the individual in the Absolute. The devotee keeps his individuality and identity. The idea of *mokṣa* that the Śvetāśvatara Upaṇisad and the *Bhagavadgitā* contain belongs to this theistic tradition. As this theistic tradition is found in the Upaniṣads, this could be considered as one of the Upaniṣadic traditions.

- 2. There was another Upanisadic tradition, which was more monistic. In this tradition, the final liberation was thought of as the recovery by the soul of its own real self which was veiled during the time of *Samsāra*. This tradition has also entered into the Indian theism. According to this tradition the beginningless jīvas, with their perfections, are really not contaminated by the bondage of *karman* or *avidyā*. Bondage only veils their perfection. Therefore liberation becomes in reality only an unveiling, a recovery, a rediscovery, or a self-realization. The Advaita of Śamkara is a full flowering of this Upaniṣadic tradition.
- 3. There is yet another Upanisadic tradition, which thought of moksa as a type of material enjoyment. Liberation becomes a prolongation of the enjoyment of the worldly pleasures without any trace of pain. Kausitaki 1.3.7 describes the Brahmaloka as having rivers, trees, lakes, mountains and nymphs with fruits and garlands in their hands. According to Chand 7.1.14-25 the released obtain whatever they desire. They are able to meet the departed loved ones 148. The state of moksa is conceived of as a type of earthly paradise. This view is as old as the Rgyedic hymns 149. For the Rgvedic sage immortality was a prolongation of the joys and pleasures of this world in a different vet analogous form, free from all disadvantages of human imperfection. 150 The conception of liberation as a state of enjoyment and happiness seems to be an outcome of man's realization of the transitory nature of earthly joys and pleasures.

The above three views of liberation are also seen in the Saurabha. Nimbārka insists more on the first (i.e. attainment of the Brahmabhāva), which is the unifying factor, in which the other two views are merged. It is in attaining Brahman, the Summum Bonum of the jīva, that the jīva realizes its own real self and enjoys all the happiness beyond measure.

The ultimate goal of the jīva is the attainment of Brahman. On attaining Him, the sūkṣma śarīra of the jīva composed of the sūkṣmabhūtas like teja, etc. merge in Brahman¹⁵¹ and becomes one (avibhāga) with Him in the sense of attaining tadātmya with him¹⁵². The jīva has been retaining this subtle body through the power of vidyā in order to facilitate his journey to the Brahmaloka. Immediately after

his separation from the subtle body, the knower attains the nature of Brahman (Brahmabhāva)¹⁵³.

The attaining of Brahman has a three-fold dimension. First of all, the liberated soul, when it has the immediate vision of Brahman (Brahma sāksātkāra), attains similarity (sāmua) with Brahman 154. He experiences Brahman, who is both devoid of all changes and negative qualities, on the one hand and is an ocean of all auspicious and supernatural qualities and powers, on the other. Brahman, as we have noted early, is free from the changes of birth etc. and is an ocean of natural, inconceivable and infinite attributes, and possessed of superhuman powers. On attaining Brahman. the muktajiva also shares in these perfections, as declared by the sruti "For when verily, he finds fearlessness as a foundation in that which is invisible, incorporeal, undefined. unsupported, then he has gone to fearlessness" (Tait 2.7) 155. "Verily, he is the essence, for, on attaining this essence one becomes blissful" (Tait 2.7)156.

Secondly, by obtaining Brahman, the jiva also attains a full development of its own individuality. Moksa is not only brahmabhāvāpannatva (obtaining the nature of Brahman) but also equally an ātmasvarūpalābha (gaining of its own real self) 157. The jiva becomes manifest in its own true form. in a most perfect manner. It means the full manifestation of the real nature of the jiva as pure consciousness and the acquisition of freedom from all shackles like ignorance. hunger, thirst, sin, death and decay 158. As we have seen earlier, the real nature of the jiva with its true perfection remains hidden during its earthly life of bondage under the influence of avidua. But in moksa, when the shackles of avidyā are shattered the jīva becomes perfect in its own form in accordance with the sruti "Having attained the form of highest light (param juotir upasampadua), he is completed in his own form" (Chand 8.12.3). Thus, in liberation the jiva rediscovers it's pristine perfection and glory. The jiva realizes itself in a bhedabheda relation with Brahman 159. It is an experience in which the jiva realizes that it is both one with, and at the same time, different from Brahman. In spite of its attaining all the positive perfections of knowledge, freedom from sin etc., in full measure, the jiva remains atomic in size

even in the state of *mokṣa*¹⁶⁰. Atomicity remains one of the very essential characteristics of the jiva and makes it always distinct from Brahman. This individuality of the jiva is not lost at all in the state of *mokṣa*¹⁶¹. The fact that the jiva attains *brahmabhāva* and becomes a self-ruler¹⁶² possessing supreme majesty, does not make it a sovereign as Brahman. The *aiśvarya* of the *mukta* is devoid of the activities of creation of the world etc. for, creation, maintenance and destruction of the world are the activity of Parabrahman alone ¹⁶³. The jiva is always under the control of the Lord ¹⁶⁴.

Liberation is the attaining of similarity of nature with Brahman, who is the mine of all perfections. The jiva too attains all the perfections in full measure in accordance with its capacity. Although the jiva attains similarity (sāmyam) with Brahman, it never becomes equal to Brahman. It always remains distinct from Brahman. In liberation the jiva keeps its personality and distinction not only from the other jivas but also from Brahman. In moksa, although the subtle elements of the jiva merge in Brahman, the jiva does not merge in Brahman. Moksa is not the destruction of the individuality of the jiva, but its full development and perfection. The personality and individuality of the jiva is not only preserved and kept intact, but also developed and enriched in liberation. On obtaining Brahman the jiva does not obtain identity with Him, but only similarity with Him in so far as bliss and joy of liberation are concerned. There is no complete identity of essence (svarūpa) between Brahman and the jiva. Nor does liberation make a jiva sovereign in all aspects. The jiva always remains dependent on Brahman. In liberation the jiva continues to be sustained and controlled by Brahman, its inner controller. The jiva finds its freedom in Brahman's will. Mukti guarantees the security of this absolute dependence on the absolute will of Brahman and not the losing of one's own self in the Absolute. Even in Mukti external and eternal relation of dependence on Brahman is not lost nor does the mukta acquire the absolute freedom of self-dependence in opposition to Brahman.

Thirdly, by attaining Brahman, the jīva attains Supreme joy and bliss beyond measure 165. Brahman's enjoyment becomes the enjoyment of the jīva too. It is through Brahman

that the jiva enjoys, for, the source of all joys and pleasures for the mukta is Brahman. On attaining Brahman, the jiva also attains the power of realizing all its wishes at once. It is capable of meeting its forefathers through a mere wish 166. It attains the power of moving about everywhere at will in accordance with the sruti "He comes to have freedom of movement in all the worlds" (Chānd 7.25.2)167. It becomes capable of fulfilling all its desires because its attributes of satuasamkalpatva (he whose desires are true) etc. become manifest in liberation 168. It may possess a body of its own liking, through a mere wish 169. Even in the absence of a body created by itself it can enjoy supreme happiness through a body created by the Lord as in the dream state 170. The mukta jiva shares in all the sportive pleasures of Brahman with the exclusion of those connected with creation etc. of the universe¹⁷¹. In spite of its being atomic in nature, even in the state of moksa, the jiva is capable of entering into many bodies through its attribute of knowledge and is able to enjoy pleasures and happiness of various bodies simultaneously 172. By experiencing the blessedness of Brahman as well as His perfections the mukta jiva acquires them. Yet the distinction of the jiva from Brahman is all the more experienced in so far as the rulership and creation of the universe belong exclusively to Brahman.

Thus according to Nimbārka liberation is not the abolition of consciousness, nor is it the dissolution of one's personality in the Supreme Consciousness. Neither does salvation mean the aloneness (kaivalyam) of the jīva just as it does not mean its absolute identity (advaita siddhi) with Brahman. Mukti is the infinitizing of the finite in which the finite remains without the limitations of the finitude. The jīva experiences Brahman, as Nimbārka says, in the vibhāgāvirodhinā'vibhāga experience¹⁷³. Here the avibhāga is neither absorption (laya) of the jīva nor conjunction (samyoga) but is the realization of Brahman by the jīva as the absolute and to which jīva itself is the relative. In this state the finite transcends its own finitude.

The liberated jiva transcends birth and death. There is no return to the *samsāra*. The liberated soul, in accordance with the texts "Those who proceed by this do not return to this human whirlpool, return not" (*Chānd* 4.15.6) and "But

on attaining me, O son of Kunti, there is no rebirth" ($G\bar{t}a\bar{a}$ 8.16), has broken the shackles of samsāra for ever¹⁷⁴.

Conclusion

According to Nimbarka the entire process of creation and liberation is a movement from Brahman unto Brahman Himself. Both the jiva and the jagat have a distinct destiny in Brahman. When the material creation gets merged into Brahman, its upādānakārana, it cannot be said that it loses its individuality and identity in so far as its relation with Brahman is said to be one of tadatmua with Brahman. It means that the material creation has become one with Brahman in so far as it has Brahman as its ātman. The jīva retains its individuality and distinction, which is perfected on attaining Brahman. The unique means for the acquisition of liberation is upāsana or dhyāna. Good deeds and the Vedic sacrifices are helpful in so far as they purify the mind of the jijñāsu and generates a longing for Brahmajñāna. The salvific jñāna, due to which the jiva realizes its bhedābheda relation with Brahman, is ultimately a gift (prasada) of Brahman. The jiva merits this prasada through its constant meditation on Brahman. The guru plays an important role in teaching the upāsaka the way of meditation.

Chapter 11

THE BHEDĀBHEDA PHILOSOPHY OF NIMBĀRKA

Introduction

Nimbārka accepts the realities of Brahman whom he calls Purusottama (the Highest Person) or Paramatman (the Supreme Spirit), of the jiva (the intelligent individual soul pratyag ātman), and of the jagat (the non-intelligent material world). These realities are also known as nigantr (inner controller), bhoktr (the enjoyer) and the bhogya (the objects of experience or enjoyment) respectively. In this chapter we try to understand the mutual relationship between the One Supreme and the Absolute Brahman and the relative jiva and jagat as propounded by the Saurabhakara. According to him the mutual relationship between Brahman the creator (the source of all beings) and the jiva and the jagat (the creatures) is one of bhedabheda (difference and non-difference) in so far as they are both distinct from the Supreme and yet non-different from Him. Nimbarka denies both an atyanta bhinnatva (absolute difference) 1 and an atyantābhedatva (absolute identity)² between Brahman and the jiva-jagat. According to him there is only a bhinnabhinna (difference nondifference) relation between them³.

1. The scripture and the Brahmasūtras teach the bhedābheda doctrine

Nimbārka as we have seen earlier agrees with the

Sūtrakāra that our knowledge of the metaphysical realities is derived from Sastra alone4. Nimbarka feels that there cannot be either an absolute identity or an absolute difference between Brahman and the jiva-jagat because such doctrines are opposed to the Upanisads which teach both an identity as well as a difference between Brahman and the jiva-jagat. The relation between the Absolute (the One) and the relative (the many) cannot be either of absolute identity or of absolute difference. Firstly, the doctrine of absolute identity will go against numerous Upanisadic passages describing a mutual distinction and difference among them⁵. The jiva and jagat are different from Brahman in as much as Brahman is described by śruti as possessing attributes and capacities distinct from them⁶. There are a large number of the Brahmasūtras which clearly affirm a clear difference between Brahman and the jiva7. Perhaps Nimbarka might have realised that on the basis of the srutitexts he has to maintain a clear metaphysical distinction between Brahman and the jiva-jagat, otherwise there will result confusion of their nature and their attributes8. Therefore the Saurabhakāra accepts that there is an obvious difference in the concepts of the nature of Brahman, jiva and jagat. He considers Brahman as the cause and the jiva and the jagat as the effects of Brahman. The relation between them is described through the analogy of the ocean and the waves, sun and its lustre9 etc. He considers the jiva as a part and Brahman as the whole 10. Brahman is the object to be obtained and the jiva is the obtainer11. Brahman is to be known and worshipped while the jiva is the knower as well as the worshipper 12. Brahman is the inner controller within the jiva¹³, vet He is ever free from all sins and defects of the jiva, who is the enjoyer of the fruits of its own deeds14. Similarly when Brahman is the omniscient and the transcendent, who cannot be limited by time, space and place, the jagat is inanimate, gross and limitable. As we have noted earlier, Nimbarka considers that the difference and the distinction between Brahman and the jiva continues to exist even in the state of liberation. The mukta jiwa, according to him, is different from Brahman on two counts. First of all, the mukta jiwa is of atomic size even though it is able to assume several bodies simultaneously through its attribute of knowledge 15. Secondly

Brahman alone is the creator and the Sovereign ruler of the Universe. Even the liberated soul does not acquire the perfection of Brahman. Thus, Nimbārka seems to point out that the difference and the distinction between Brahman and the jīva is essential, natural and eternal.

Although there is thus a distinction between the creator and the created, Nimbārka does not accept an absolute difference between them. He points out that the jīva and the jagat are non-different from Brahman. Jīva and jagat are the effects (kārya) of Brahman. There cannot be an absolute difference between the cause (kāraṇa) and the effects (kārya). The jīva and jagat derive their existence, nature and attributes from Brahman, besides whom there exists nothing prior to creation. They share in the "esse" of Brahman and are absolutely dependent on Him as His effects for their existence and activities just as the dependence of the pot on the clay, its supportive material cause, for its continued existence. An absolute difference between Brahman (the cause) and jīvajagat (the effects) will go against many of the śruti texts teaching their non-difference lefe.

Since both the scripture and the *Brahmasūtras* present a relation of both difference as well as non-difference between the Absolute Brahman and the relative jīva-jagat, all those commentators, who stress either identity or difference have to do violence to the *sūtras* and have to explain away those *śruti* texts supporting a view contrary to their own¹⁷. After making a critical evaluation of the interpretations of the *Brahmasūtras* as well as the scriptural texts by Śańkara, Rāmānuja, Madhva, Vallabha and Nimbārka, V.S. **Ghate** came to the conclusion that Nimbārka is most faithful both to the *Brahmasūtras* as well as the *śruti* texts. He says:

"If at all we insist on seeing in the *sūtras* one of the five systems under discussion, it can be at the most the *bhedābheda* system of Nimbārka, according to which both *bheda* and *abheda* are equally real, without the idea of any subordination of one to the other. (See in this connection specially *sūtras* 3.2.27-29, which fit in with the doctrine of Nimbārka better than with any other; also *sūtras* 4.4.7 and 12, which represent a clumsy combination of both the views contained in the immediately preceding *sūtras*). For, if we

classify the five schools in question from the point of view of the formation of a system based on the reconciliation of the passages teaching difference and non-difference, or plurality and unity, the school of Nimbārka (leaving out of consideration the later theological and Sectarian encumbrances) represents the first and in a sense, elementary and rather clumsy stage and the very title *bhedābheda* bears testimony to this fact¹⁸.

2. The bhedabhedavada is founded on satkaryavada

Now, the bhedabheda relationship as expounded in the Saurabha is rooted both in the satkāryavāda and in the doctrine that Brahman is at once the efficient (nimitta) and material supportive (upādāna) cause of the universe. According to the doctrine of the satkāryavāda originally based on the Upanisads and propounded by the Samkhyas, there is non-difference between the material cause and its effect. The effect pre-exists in its material cause and is of the nature of its cause. The effect is not something non-existent in the cause as the Nyāya Vaiśesikas would have us to accept. The effect (kārua) in fact pre-exists in the cause in a subtle form. It becomes manifest when the nimittakārana (efficient cause) brings it out. The potter, for example, transforms the clay into a pot. Thus the activity of the agent also has a positive role in making the effect known. Through the activity of the potter, for example, the pot which was unmanifest in clay, is made manifest. But, if the effect were non-existent in its material cause, for example the pot in the clay, then it would not be produced at all by any nimittakārana. The potter is able to produce a pot or a brick from clay because the pot or brick is pre-existent in a subtle form in the clay. In support of the satkāryavāda Nimbārka points out that if a previously non-existent effect does indeed arise, why is that there is no origin of a barley sprout from fire 19. According to Nimbarka the manifestation of the pre-existent effect at creation is like the spreading out of an already rolled up piece of cloth²⁰ or it is like the breath, having the prāna, apāna etc. controlled by breathing exercises, remains in its real form, and when the control removed, is instantly known in those respective forms²¹. It means that the production of an effect is a manifestation of the effect from a cause in which it preexisted in an unmanifest state.

The effect is dependent on its upādānakārana (supportive material cause) for its continued existence and activities. For example, the pot depends on the clay for its continued existence and activities as a pot. The clay is called the supportive material cause (upādānakārana) of a pot because the clay goes on supporting the pot to continue to exist as a pot. If the clay disappears, the pot cannot exist anymore. But the dependence of the effect or the product on the nimittakārana (efficient cause) seems to end from the moment the effect is produced. For example, once the pot is produced, it does not depend on the potter for its continued existence. Even if the potter goes away or is dead, the pot can exist independently of the potter. Therefore according to the satkaryavada the dependence of the effect on its upādānakārana continues to exist as long as the effect exists. In other words the doctrine of satkaruavada insists on the immanence, the organic unity and the continuity of the upādānakārana. The upādāna contains the effect (kārua) potentially and the effect is this potency actualized.

In the Vedanta system, the satkaruavada is very much connected with the doctrine of the upadanakaranatva of Brahman. The world which is an effect pre-existed in a subtle causal state in Brahman. Prior to creation the only reality was Brahman. He is the self-existent independent reality. There existed nothing besides Him. In Him pre-existed this vast and multifarious universe in a subtle causal state prior to its particularization into concrete physical things. It is due to the subtleness of the universe prior to creation that the śrutioccasionally describes it as non-existent (Chānd 3.19.1). But the pre-existence of the world in Brahman is evident from the complementary passage "That was existent" (Chānd 3.19.1). In that state, one could say that the world is one with Brahman. There is non-difference of the effect from the cause. But when these effects are manifested, in their effect state, they have their own distinctions among themselves as well as their distinction from Brahman. Yet, the universe and all the jivas continue to depend on Brahman their supportive cause for their continued existence and activities just as any other effects on their respective upādānakārana as pointed out early.

3. The Saurabha teaches Brahmaparinamavada

Brahman is not only the upādānakārana of the jīva and the jagat. He is also their nimittakārana, because there exists nothing besides Brahman. As we have seen above, Nimbarka considers Brahman as both the nimitta as well as the upādānakārana of the entire created universe²². According to him, this universe is a transformation (parinama) of the all-pervading, partless Brahman. Here Nimbarka seems to follow the lead giver by the Brahmasūtrakāra. Ghate points out that we have sufficient reason to believe that the Sūtrakāra held the doctrine of parinama as opposed to vivarta. Firstly, the Sūtrakāra expressly uses the word parināma in sūtra 1.4.26. Secondly, in answer to the objection that is raised against the intelligent Brahman being the cause of the nonintelligent universe, an objection based on the dissimilarity between cause and effect (BS 2.1.4.ff) the Sūtrakāra never says nor even suggests that this is possible owing to the superimposition of the effects upon the cause, as for instance. that of silver on the mother-of-pearl. On the other hand, he refuses to admit that the effect is non-existent in the cause. before its production (2.1.7) which would be the case if the vivarta view be accepted23.

Brahman, being both the upādānakārana and the nimittakārana of everything, has the power of transforming Himself into the forms of various entities without undergoing any change in His nature. By this śakti (power) Brahman manifests the forms of creation - jivas and jagat. There seems to be a creative urge or śakti in Brahman which is potential in pralaya and evolves into the whole cosmic process or saktiviksepa as Nimbārka calls it24. According to Nimbārka the indivisible niravayava (partless) Brahman evolves into the world of forms and names through His own power in the same manner as milk changes into curd without any external influence 25. It is clear that savayavatva (having parts) is not the cause of the transformation of milk to curd. If it were so, water, being savayava (with parts) should also be changed into curd. It is also evident that the potency of milk to be changed into curd is a special property of milk independent of its being savayava or niravayava. Similarly, it is due to the asadharana power of Brahman that He is able to create or rather to transform Himself into the forms of the created world, without causing any mutations or reductions to His nature. The creative process does not affect Brahman in any way. This is the doctrine that Nimbārka seems to hold when he says that "just as the spider weaves its own web Brahman by His śaktivikṣepa differentiates Himself into the manifold created beings without being affected thereby²⁶. The chief point in the theory of Brahmapariṇāma is its insistence on the principle of self-differentiation as opposed to external origination.

4. The causality of Brahman is unique

The causality of Brahman is a unique one, without any parallel instance. It cannot be compared to the causes we see in our everyday experience. Brahman is both the nimitta and upādānakāranas of everything that exists, because there is no other entity besides Brahman prior to creation. Therefore when the Upanisadic sages, or for that matter, the commentators like Nimbārka, use drstāntas to drive certain points home or to explain certain metaphysical realities through physical examples, it is very much important to see what is the point of comparison that they want to stress. In every metaphysical or analogical expression there is an important point which is meant to be conveyed. As Fawcett points out that if we are told that the brain is like a "telephone exchange", it is clear that the analogy would break down at many points. The similes are helpful in that they convey something of the nature of the reality to us by striking a comparison, yet the difference between the one and the other in each case is clear²⁷.

Though the example of the potter, the clay and the pot is an apt analogy to explain the pre-existence of the effect in the cause (satkāryavāda), yet it is too gross an example to be applied to Brahman (the cause) and to the pre-existence of the jīva-jagat (the effects) in Him. We cannot apply satkāryavāda used in a gross, material sense, to Him, without transcending sufficiently its material paradigm (claypot). The Upanisadic sages and Nimbārka too, seem to understand the point, although they do not explicitly explain it. That they understand that the gross material satkāryavāda cannot be applied to Brahman is clear from the fact that they

use many other analogies and symbolic expressions to explain the creation of the world. The examples of the procession of the lustre from the sun or the production of the web from the spider go a long way to transcend much the "gross sense" of the satkāryavāda. As pointed out earlier, the expression "so'kāmayata bahusyām" (Tait 2.6) seems to be an attempt to "de-materialize" the satkāryavāda. It is very evident that we cannot apply the gross examples of the transformation of the clay or milk to the Absolute, transcendental Brahman. Therefore the Upanisadic sage says: "so'kāmayata bahusyām" (Tait 2.6) "svayam ātmānam akuruta" (Tait 2.7). Brahman creates the world through a mere decision. Creation is a process through which Brahman. the Absolute manifests Himself in the finite forms. Texts like so'kāmayata (Tait 2.6) which Nimbārka also quotes in a number of places in the Saurabha, seem to point out that creation is due to a decision of will on the part of Brahman. The divine parinama belongs to the realm of the transcendence and it leaves the Absolute cause (Brahman) unmutated and unchanged. But Nimbarka has not "exploited" properly the śrutitexts describing the creation of the world due to the will of Brahman. Such a refinement is necessary in order to make the satkāryavāda applicable to Brahman who transcends the realm of matter. Such a refinement also enables us to understand better the "paradoxical" assertion of Nimbarka that the world is a parinama of Brahman and vet Brahman remains ever unchanged. The paradox is only an apparent one.

The satkāryavāda also makes the bhedābheda between the cause and effect more clear. That there is a bhedābheda relation between the pot and the clay (upādānakāraṇa) is very evident. (But there is no such relation between the pot and the potter—nimittakāraṇa). Similarly, the co-substantiality of the cause and the effect is shown through the analogy of the sun and its lustre or the spider and the web. When such an analogy is applied to the ontological relation between Brahman who is the conscious upādānakāraṇa as well as the nimittakāraṇa of the entire creation and the created world we have also to transcend the crude material understanding of the bhedābheda relationship. Brahman the transcendental upādāna and nimittakāraṇa of the world is

both non-different (abheda) and different (bheda) from the created world. The world is non-different from Brahman. The created world has its existence and essence from Brahman. And the world is different (bheda) from Brahman in so far as He transcends it. In so far as the jiva and jagat derive their existence and essence from Brahman, they can be said to have in a finite way, co-essentiality with Brahman. But they are in no way identical with Brahman. Their being and essence are given to them. Therefore they are dependent beings. They are finite beings while Brahman is the only Absolute transcendental Reality.

5. The bhedabheda relation

Nimbarka denies that there is either an atyanta bhinnatva²⁸ (absolute difference) or an atyanta abhedatva (absolute non-difference) between Brahman and jiva-jagat. According to him there can be only a bhinnabhinna or bhedabheda relation between them²⁹. He has also pointed out, as we have noted earlier, that an absolute identity as well as absolute difference between Brahman and jiva-jagat are opposed to the Upanisads which predicate the equal reality of difference and non-difference. Nimbarka seems to hold that since both the terms of that relation i.e. both Brahman and the world are real and objective, the relation between them is also real. Unlike Nimbarka, Samkara does not consider the relations as real. According to him all the relations are purely conceptual and superimposed, because according to him there is only one reality (pāramārthika sattā). Therefore, from a transcendental point of view, all the relations in the Advaitavada, including the relation between the cause and the effect are illusory. They are mere superimpositions. But, as we have seen above, Nimbarka considers that the bhedabheda relation between Brahman and the jīva-jagat is a real one.

Brahman is not out of all relationships. He is the ground of all relationships, for He sustains all things. It is He who gives meaning to the finite. In the realm of *being* we have the One, the Infinite, the Absolute Brahman, while in the world of *becoming* we have the many, the finite, the relative, the

jīva-jagat . Becoming is as real as the Being. The one Being becomes the many. The One, the Absolute remains unchanged while the "many", the relative, change and pass away. Brahman in His transcendence is beyond all categories of limitations, of time and space. He is the fullness of Being, Bliss, Power and Perfection³⁰. Brahman, the Infinite, who "limits Himself" into the name and form of the world, cannot be limited or exhausted by the world. Similarly Brahman, who transforms Himself into the world of the jīvas and the material objects transcends all of them. Changes and defects in them cannot in any way affect Him³¹.

Nimbārka explains the relation between Brahman and jīva-jagat not only in terms of the cause and its effects³² but also through other analogies and similes such as the ocean and its waves³³, the sun and its lustre³⁴, a substratum of Power, and its power³⁵, the whole and its parts³⁶, the snake and its coil³⁷ etc. These analogies and symbolic expressions point out, according to Nimbārka, both the difference and the non-difference between Brahman and the jīva-jagat. We may also presume that as the effects of Brahman, both the jiva and the jagat also have *bhedābhedatva* among themselves just as the pot and the plate, which are the effects of clay, have among themselves.

Here Nimbarka is trying to communicate the metaphysical bhedabheda experience through physical categories and metaphorical and symbolic expressions. But what is the meaningfulness i.e. the ultimate significance of these symbolic expressions? As pointed out earlier the cause-effect relationship based on both the satkāryavāda as well as the upādāna and nimittakāranatva of Brahman as propounded by Nimbarka explains not only how there can be a relation of bheda and abheda between Brahman and the jiva-jagat. but also demonstrates, on one hand, the immanence as well as the transcendence of Brahman and, on the other hand. the relative nature and the total dependence of the jiva-jagat on Brahman, their cause. The abhedatva here means not an absolute identity between Brahman and the jiva-jagat but their essential dependence on and their ontological participation in the nature of Brahman, their cause.

6. The bhedabheda relation is explained through metaphors

- a) The total dependence of the created reality on Brahman, expressed through the metaphor of the ocean and the waves, denotes the musterium tremendum of Brahman. Brahman is beyond human comprehension. The description of Brahman in terms of the vast ocean also indicates the eternal and the causal nature of Brahman. The description of the jiva and the jagat as the waves in the ocean indicates their temporary and relative existence. It also shows that Brahman is the underlying principle beneath all changes and transformations. Brahman the all-embracing and the all-pervading reality is the support of all beings just as the ocean is the support of the waves. Under the rising and vanishing waves remains the tranquil, the limitless and vast ocean which is the source of these waves. Just as no wave can exist apart from the ocean, no jiva or jagat can exist apart from Brahman. If the ocean ceases to exist the waves are also destroyed. The wave is formed from the ocean. It is dissolved into the ocean. The waves have no existence apart from the ocean. Similarly Brahman is the beginning and the end of the jiva-jagat. The wave is only a modification of the ocean. It is not the totality of the ocean. The wave is only an amsa (part) of the ocean. It is totally dependent on the ocean for its origin. subsistence and finally it is dissolved into ocean. The ocean is the primordial ground of the waves. The metaphor of the ocean and the waves also demonstrate to some extent the mystery of the One and the many. There is a multiplicity of the waves, but there is the oneness of the ocean. Although the wave is not the whole ocean, yet it has got a certain amount of independence. It can be considered as different from the ocean. The destruction of one or all of the waves does not warrant the destruction of the ocean.
- b) Similarly, the ultimate significance of the *dṛṣṭānta* of the snake (ahi) and the coil (kuṇḍala) is again the total dependence of the created world on Brahman the creator. The coil is a particular mode of the existence of the snake. Similarly the jīva is one of the particular ways Brahman manifests Himself. He manifests Himself in many other ways. The snake need not exist in the coil form. The coil form

is not a necessity for the snake nor does it form the essential nature of the snake. Similarly the jīva or the jagat are not necessary beings. They are relative and they depend on Brahman's free will for their existence and essence.

- c) In the same way, the description of the relation of Brahman and jīva-jagat as the relation between the sun and its lustre or between the substratum of power and its attribute of power again demonstrate the total dependence of the finite and relative world on Brahman, who is the source of all existence. There is co-essentiality between the lustre and the sun, yet there is difference and distinction between them. In both the cases the *dharma* and the *dharmin* are identical and yet different.
- d) Again the presentation of the relation between Brahman and jiva-jagat as the one between the whole and its parts demonstrates the total dependence of the parts (jivajagat) on the whole (Brahman) as well as their co-essentiality. Nimbarka does not explain the simile. But it is clear that he is not speaking in terms of physical parts from the fact that he denies any parts (avayavatva) to Brahman. Brahman is not a physical reality, but the metaphysical and transcendental entity, the source and the goal of everything. The whole is not composed of the parts but constitutes them and is not discrete but organic. The part has meaning only in the context of the whole. There is a dependent co-substantiality of the parts on the whole. The part depends entirely for its existence and activity on the whole. In the realm of being and existence the transcendence and the independence of Brahman as well as the dependence and relativeness of jiva-jagat and their bhedabheda relation with Brahman as well as among themselves are well expressed through the symbolism of amsa (parts) and amsin (whole). The jiva and jagat, as parts of Brahman, are essentially one with Brahman and yet they have their own distinct nature from Him as well as being distinct among themselves.
- e) Through the above similes, metaphors, allegories and symbols Nimbārka has been driving home the following facts. First of all, there is the absolute independence and transcendence of Brahman. Brahman is a personal God. His personality is the Supreme. He is Purusottama. He is the

absolute per se, the self complete and the self-determined. In this respect there is difference (bheda) between Brahman and the jiva-jagat. Secondly, there is the total dependence of the created world of jiva-jagat on Brahman for their existence and activity. Brahman is the logical primus of the relative existence. The Absolute constitutes the relative. Yet the relation between "the One" and "the many" is one of coexistence and not of contradiction. "The many" participate in the esse (existence) of the One. In this sense there is a relation of non-difference between Brahman and the jivajagat³⁸. The Absolute is immanent in the relative vet remains beyond them, without losing its Absoluteness. Like the spider weaving its own web, Brahman emanates into the forms of the entire created world and vet exceeds their totality. The entire cosmos is the self-actualization of the creative power of Brahman. Brahman's causality implies both His transcendence and immanence. Neither of them is more or less. Neither of them dominates over or destroys the other39

7. The meaningfulness of the bhedabheda relation

a) According to M.M.Agrawal⁴⁰, in the philosophy of Nimbarka, the relation always presupposes difference and non-difference (bhedābheda). Relation presupposes a meeting point. Both absolute identity and absolute difference do not have such a meeting point for any relation. That is why Samkara, who accepts the doctrine of absolute identity, has to explain all the relations as superimposition and merely phenomenal. Nor can there be any relation between two things that are contradictory or rather completely bhinna. Therefore there must be some form of bhedabheda relation between the anuyogin (the related) and the pratiyogin (the relative). There is such a bhedābheda relation between the cause and effect, and the whole and its parts. How could difference and non-difference co-exist in the same entity? Is it not a contradiction as the Naiyayikas allege, or rather, one cancelling the other⁴¹. True, there could be such a contradiction and negation of each other, if the bhedabheda relation is understood as the attribution of contradictory predicates (for example of potness and non-potness) to one and the same subject at the same time and the same way.

But in the bhedabheda doctrine as expounded in the Nimbarka philosophy both the difference and the identity are to be understood from different angles. There cannot be a total difference between Brahman and the created world because of the Brahmātmakatva of everything⁴². Brahman permeates everything created because Brahman is the supportive material cause of everything. Yet there is a real difference between Brahman the cause and the world of ivajagat which are the effects. Both difference and non-difference are real, but are not to be viewed from the same angle. Here abheda (non-difference) does not mean absolute identity (e.g. the clay and the pot are not absolutely identical. If they are identical one could serve the purpose of the other). Their abhedatva presupposes and includes their difference. Thus, the root of the bhedabheda relation is the Brahmaparinamavada. Prior to creation, jiva and jagat inhere in Brahman, their cause, as His powers. Even in that state there is a distinction between Brahman who possesses the power and the jiva and the jagat which inhere in Him as His powers. This distinction and difference are made manifest at creation (i.e. at the origin of the jiva and the jagat). This difference continues even in the state of Mukti as we have seen earlier. In liberation the jiva retains its distinction, individuality and difference from Brahman while the material creation returns to Brahman and inheres in Him as His power to be made manifest at the new creation.

b) We have to "dematerialize" even the concept of relations when applied to Brahman. But Nimbārka has not done it. Perhaps he might be aware of such a need when he transcends from the nimittakāraṇatva of the potter to Brahman through the example of gods who create things through a mere wish⁴³. But he has not explicitated it. The relation between Brahman and the world is not mutual in all aspects. Our experience of relation is mostly gross and material, between the clay and the pot or between a father and his son, etc. We also have ideas of logical relation such as between the genus and the species etc. It is amply clear that when we speak of the ontological or transcendental relation between the Absolute Brahman and the created relative world we must not understand their relation in a physical sense as between a material cause and its effect. We

have to dematerialize our understanding of the metaphysical realities. The *Brahmaparināmavāda* of Nimbārka has to be understood in the light of the totality of his *bhedābhedavāda*. Since Nimbārka stresses the *bheda* aspect of the relation between Brahman and jīva-jagat as real as the *abheda* aspect⁴⁴, he cannot be accused of being a pantheist.

- c) What is the purpose of the bhedabhedavada? It is to show a certain oneness between the cause and the effect. This oneness is seen in similarity. We know from our ordinary experience that there is a similarity between the cause and the effect, for example, between the gold and its products like bracelet or earring. At the same time the cause and the effect cannot be totally identical. If so, one could be the same as the other. This experience cannot be adequately expressed and explained by one or the other of the two extremes of bheda and abheda. As we have seen earlier there are traits of both bheda and abheda doctrines in the Upanisads. For example texts like "vācārambhanam vikāro nāmadheyam mr.ttiketyeva satyam" (Chānd 6.1.4) "aitadātmyam idam sarvam tat satyam tat tvam asi" (Chānd 6.9.4) and "sarvam khalvidam brahma" (Chānd 3.14.1) denote their abhedatvam, while texts like "ātmānam antaro yamayati" (Br.h3.7.22), "rasam hyeväyam labdhva'nandibhavati" (Tait. 2.7) "esa ma ātmā'ntarhrdaye" (Chānd 3.14.3) support their bhedatvam. A process of harmonization was inevitable. The acceptance of a third view, comprising both bheda and abheda seems to have taken place prior to the days of Badaravana, Badaravana himself, attempted at harmonization of bheda and abheda in his Brahmasūtras, which is really a condensation of the Upanisadic teachings. Scholars are of the opinion that Bādarāvana himself was an adherent of the via media of the bhedabhedavada because all the examples given in the Brahmasūtras to explain the relationship between Brahman and jiva-jagat point to the bhedabhedavada. Nimbarka follows this path45.
- d) Another point which is not explicitly discussed by Nimbārka, but is still worth considering is this, viz., the Absolute Being, namely, the One from whom everything comes and the One whom everything depends upon for its existence and to Whom everything finally returns is a mystery an incomprehensible Reality⁴⁶, as the Upanisads

say "uato vaco nivartante" (Tait 2.9) "How" the many spring from the Absolute Being and the relationship that exists between the "One" and "the many" are also equally incomprehensible mysteries. The Absolute is not an object of our daily sense experience. We can try to understand Him through similes and analogies as the Upanisadic sages taught us. Therefore we can form only an analogical understanding of Him. The similes and allegories we have examined form part of this attempt to understand Brahman and His relation to the created world. The experience of the mysterious relationship between the Absolute and the relative finds expression in this paradox which we call the bhedabhedavada. It may appear at first sight that there is a contradiction in the doctrine of bhedābheda. How can there be a bheda and abheda relationship at the same time? As explained above the bheda and the abheda are seen from different angles. Thus, a real contradiction is avoided. Still what the sūtrakāra himself and the commentator Nimbārka as well as the other bhedabhedavadins apparently want to bring out is the mystery of self-communication of Brahman, the Infinite to the creatures, the finite. Through this creative self-communication the finite receive their very existence. In spite of Brahman being totally the Other, the Transcendent and the Infinite. He has designed to share His Being with others. This is the mystery of creation. Brahman is the Alpha and the Omega of creation. The relation that exists between Brahman and the creatures is one of bhedabheda because the created world shares in the being and the existence of Brahman. But the created world does not exhaust Brahman. He always remains totally the Other.

The Upanisadic sage well expressed this mystery when he exclaimed.

pūrnam adah pūrnam idam pūrnāt pūrnam udacyate pūrnasya pūrnam ādāya pūrnam evāvaśisyate. (Bṛh 5.1.1)

CONCLUSION

The present study, based primarily on the Vedantapārijāta Saurabha, will go a long way in removing many misconceptions about Nimbarka and his philosophy. In chapter one it is pointed out that Nimbarka, the author of the Saurabha was not a worshipper of Rādhākrsna, but was a Bhāgavata Vāsudeva Vaisnava. It is also shown in chapter one that Rādhā became an object of worship only in the tenth century A.D. if not later. This point is also substantiated by the findings in chapter five where it is demonstrated that Rādhā entered the Nimbarka school only after Śrinivasa, the Kaustubhakāra. The Vedāntapārijāta Saurabha fully supports the fact that Nimbarka was not a Pañcaratra Narayana Vaisnava. Firstly, there is no mention of Narayana in the Saurabha. Reference to Nārāyana is omitted in the Mbh text (12.339.14-15) which he quotes in Saurabha 2.3.42. Secondly, there is no trace of any Pañcarātra element, including the vyūhavāda, in the entire Saurabha. Nimbārka was a Bhāgavata Vaisnava Vedāntin.

The examination of the traditional accounts of Nimbarka has shown that these traditions are coloured by theological considerations and mythological beliefs. We have also pointed out that the traditional belief that Nimbarka lived in the 15th year of Kaliyuga is untenable. After all, Nimbarka is a commentator of the Brahmasūtras and as such he cannot be assigned to a period prior to the composition of the Brahmasūtras. It is also pointed out that the date of Nimbārka cannot be determined by assigning "an average life span" to the ācāryas found mentioned in the guruparamparās made in order to claim legitimacy and authority after major splits took place in the Sect. The list of the guruparamparas made as late as the 15th or the 16th century A.D. is unable to provide any historical or chronological data concerning the ācāryas some of whom have themselves not left any evidence of their existence, nor have found any mention in the writings of their immediate followers.

A tendency is also noticed in the Nimbarka school to interpolate later ideas into the writings of the earlier ācāryas. There have been cases where spurious and later works were attributed even to Nimbarka himself. Therefore all the works generally attributed to Nimbarka in the Sect today have been examined. On the basis of this study, it is pointed out in chapter two that the works like Daśaśloki. Mantrarahasyasodasi, Prapannakalpavallietc. belong to a later stage in the development of the Vaisnava bhakti movement. It was mainly on the basis of such late works attributed to Nimbarka by his followers that modern scholars were forced to assign Nimbarka to a post-Ramanuja and even a post-Madhva period. But a detailed study of the Saurabha prompts one to place the author of the Saurabha in a pre-Samkara period. In chapter four a number of instances has been discussed where one naturally expects a post-Śāmkara commentator to be aware of Samkara, but the Saurabhakāra is completely unaware of Samkara. Many instances have been illustrated where Samkara considers some doctrines which are identical to the ones upheld by Nimbarka to be the pūrvapaksa. In such instances Nimbarka could not possibly be summarizing Samkara because no post-Samkara commentator could defend his theory by a mere clumsy summary of what Samkara presents as the pūrvapakṣa. No post-Samkara commentator could also afford to leave aside the refinements and insights brought by Samkara. A comparative study of the commentaries of Nimbārka, Samkara, Srīnivāsa and Rāmānuja compels one to conclude that Nimbarka appears to be the earliest and the most primitive among them all.

It has also been shown that Nimbārka is not acquainted with the *Kārikās* of Īsvarakṛṣṇa. There is nothing in the *Saurabha* to warrant any extra knowledge of the Sāṁkhya on his part than that of the Sūtrakāra himself. Besides, Nimbārka's preference to the term *Tāntrikas* for the Sāṁkhyas indicates that he identifies the Sāṁkhya system with the *Ṣaṣṭitantra*, a later systematization of which is the *Kārikās* of Īśvarakṛṣṇa. It is also noticed that Nimbārka refutes the *Śāktamata* under *BS* 2.2.42-45. It shows that Nimbārka is aware of a rather developed philosophical school of the Śāktas. Therefore, even if Nimbārka were a pre-Īśvarakṛṣṇa

Vedāntin he cannot be placed before the fifth century A.D., for it is found that the development of the Śākta school, as warranted by the *Saurabha* 2.2.42-45, look place only by the fifth century A.D. (late Gupta period). It prompts one to place Nimbārka between the later half of the fifth century A.D. and the first half of the sixth century A.D.

But the study of the *Kaustubha* in chapter five compels us to place Śrinivāsa, the alleged disciple of Nimbārka according to the *guruparamparās*, in the post-Śamkara period. It only supports the findings in chapter two that the list of the *guruparamparās* cannot be relied upon to determine the actual succession in the Nimbārka Sect. The gap between Nimbārka and Śrinivāsa is of a few centuries. It also explains why there is conflicting traditional accounts even concerning the real name of Nimbārka, his parents, his place of birth, etc. as pointed out in chapter two. Therefore, Śrinivāsa's claim of being a disciple of Nimbārka demands only that he belongs to the tradition of Nimbārka just as the claim that Nimbārka himself makes of his being a disciple of Nārada can mean only that he belongs to that tradition of Vaisṇavism.

The claim that Nimbarka is one of the earliest vrttikaras on the Brahmasūtras is supported by the Vedanta Vaisnava philosophy as expounded in the Saurabha. In the present work a detailed study has been made of the doctrines of the Saurabhakāra concerning Brahman, the jīva, the jagat, the bondage, the cause of this bondage, the means of liberation, the state of liberation, the bhedabheda relation between Brahman, the Ultimate cause and the jiva-jagat, the effects, etc. As a Vaisnava philosopher Nimbarka identifies the Absolute Brahman with Vasudeva Ramakanta Purusottama. But, as we have noticed, there is no "sectarianism" in the entire Saurabha. The Saurabha also lacks any understanding of the popular bhaktimārga as a means for liberation. His understanding of bhakti is that of meditation (dhyāna). He has also no idea of a Vaikuntha or Goloka. All these point to one fact that the Saurabha of Nimbarka belonged to a time prior to the development of the popular bhakti movements.

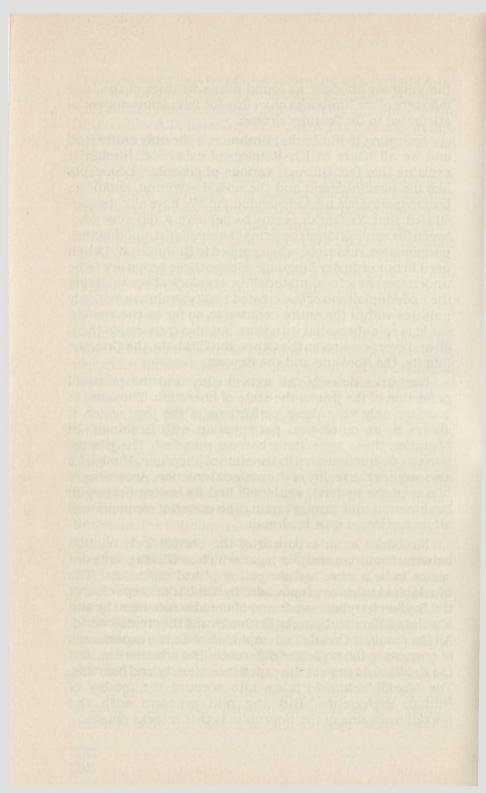
Studies so far made on the philosophy of Nimbārka failed to make a distinction between the primitive and archaic thoughts of the Saurabhakāra and the later development of

the Vaiṣṇava thought as found in the writings of the later followers of the Nimbārka as well as the later spurious works attributed to the founder ācārya.

According to Nimbārka, Brahman is the only entity (sat) and we all share in His ontological existence. Nimbārka explains this fact through various philosophical concepts like the nimittakārana and the upādānakāraṇa, satkārya, brahmapariṇāma, amśāmśībhāva, etc. We have also demonstrated that Nimbārka seems to perceive a difference between the application of the terms like nimittatva, upādānatva, pariṇāmatva, amśin etc. when applied to Brahman and when used in our ordinary language. Hence these terms are to be understood in a "non-material" or ontological sense. Being the upādānakāraṇa of the created reality Brahman not only pulsates within the entire creation in so far as the created world is co-substantial with Him, but also transcends them all and ever remains as the Other, the Ultimate, the One, the Infinite, the Absolute and the Beyond.

Nimbārka defends the individuality and the personal perfection of the jīva in the state of liberation. The state of bondage only veils these perfections of the jīva, which it shares in its ontological participation with Brahman. In liberation these perfections become manifest. The jīva retains its distinction even in the state of liberation. Nimbārka also accepts the reality of the material creation. According to him even the material world will find its lasting destiny in Brahman in and through man. The material elements will attain tadātmya with Brahman.

Nimbārka is an exponent of the *bhedābheda* relation between Brahman and jīva-jagat, which as **Ghate** points out seems to be a more archaic philosophical expression. The *bhedābhedavāda* as propounded by Nimbārka keeps clear of the Scylla-charybdis syndrome of the absolute identity and absolute difference between Brahman and the created world. All the monistic theories attempt to explain the experiences of oneness to the neglect of difference. The creationism, and the *dvaitavāda* neglect the experience of unity and oneness. The *bhedābhedavāda* takes into account the totality of human experience. But the real problem with the *bhedābhedavāda* of the *Saurabha* is that it lacks details.



NOTES AND REFERENCES

Chapter 1

- The Saurabhakāra does indeed criticise and refute the doctrines of the non-vedic schools like Sāmkhya, Śākta, etc. Vide infra p. 149 ff.
- 2. From the epithet given to Nimbārka in the colophon as Śrīmad bhagavan it appears that the colophon is added to the Saurabha at a later stage, when Nimbārka has already been recognized as an authority on religious matters.
- 3. Later it will be shown that the Saurabhakāra cannot be the author of some other works attributed to Nimbārka. Vide infra p. 45 f.
- 4. Saurabha 1.1.1. anantācintya-svabhāvika svarūpaguņaśaktyādibhir brhattamo yo ramākāntaḥ puruṣottamo brahma śabdābhidheyaḥ.
- 5. For example, Vide Saurabha 1.1.2. 1.4.14, 1.4.17,
- 6. For example, *Vide Saurabha* 1.2.9-10; 13, 17; 1.3.8; 12, 24, 40, 42 etc.
- 7. Ibid, 1.1.4, tasmāt sarvajāah sarvācintya śakti viśvajanmādi hetur vedaikapramāṇagamyah sarvabhinnā bhinno bhagavān vasūdevo viśvātmaiva jijāāsāviṣayaḥ.
- 8. Ibid, 1.2.19; 27; 1.3.9; 12, 13, 14, 16, 42, 44; 1.4.23 etc.,
- 9. *Ibid*, 1.2.19; 2.3.13 etc.
- 10. R.N. Dandekar, (1) 1979, p. 213.
- 11. Pāṇini IV, 3.98 Cf also **Dandekar**, 1974 pp. 205-210.
- 12. D.C. **Sircar**, 1942, pp. 90-91.

 According to **Sircar**, the Besanagar inscription reads:
 Devadevasya Vā (sude) vasa guruḍadhvaje ayam kārite
 i(a) Heliodorena bhāgavatena diyasaputrena takhasilākena
 yonadūtena āgatena mahārājasa Antalikenasa upā(m)tā
 sakāsam rājňokaliputasa Bhāgabhadrasa trātārasa vasena
 (catu) dasamnarājena Vadhamānasa....
- 13. Cf. Păṇini IV 3. 98, Dandekar, 1979, pp. 213-215

14. Cf. Kautilya's Artha Śāstra XIII, 3, 67.

Cf. also Ghosundi stone inscription of Sarvatāta and Nanaghat cave inscription of the Sātavāhana Queen Nāyanikā.

Vide S. Jaiswal, 1967, pp. 51-60.

Cf. Kāśikā on Pāṇini VIII, 1.15.

Cf. also Dandekar, 1979, pp. 238-240.

- 15. Cf. **Dandekar**, 1979, pp. 216-218 and pp. 241-245. He opines that the Yādava hero Kṛṣṇa might have been the same as *Devakiputra Kṛṣṇa*, mentioned in the *Chāndogya Upaniṣad* III, 17.1 as the pupil of Ghora Āngirasa.
- 16. R.N. Dandekar, 1979, pp. 223, 245-248R.G. Bhandarkar, 1913, p. 37Debala Mitra, "The Abhiras and their contribution to the

Indian Culture", PIHC, Jaipur, 1951, pp. 91-100.

- 17. R.N. Dandekar, 1979, pp. 248-250.
- 18. H.C. Ray Chaudhuri, 1936, pp. 109-110
- 19. S. Jaiswal, 1967, p. 71.
- 20. Ibid, p. 74.
- 21. J.F. **Fleet** (Ed.) "Inscription of the Early Gupta Kings" (CII: III), London, 1888, pp. 270-271.
- 22. Vāyupurāņa, 2.35. 1-2.
- 23. S. Jaiswal, 1967, pp. 41-44.
- 24. (a) Mrinal Dasgupta, "Early Viṣṇuism and Nārāyanīya Worship" in IHQ, Vol, VIII, 1931, pp. 108-109, 346 ff.
 - (b) R.C. Hazra, 1958, pp. 14 and 216.
 - (c) R.N. Dandekar, 1979, p. 261.
 - (d) S.K. **De** "Sects and Sectarian Worship in the Mahābhārata, Our Heritage (Bulletin of the Department of Post Graduate Training and Research, Sanskrit College, Calcutta, Vol. I, 1953, P.20 f.
- 25. S. **Jaiswal**, 1967, pp. 75-76.

 According to her The *Tait*. Ār. 10.1.6.1 invocation *Nārāyaṇāya* vidmahe vāsudevāya dhīmahi tanno viṣṇuḥ procodayāt is a later interpolation even as late as the Gupta period.
- 26. F.O. Schrader, 1916, Adyar Library, Madras.
- 27. The absence of the *Vyūhavāda* in the Bhagavadgītā is very significant.
- 28. J.N. Banerjea, 1966, Calcutta, p. 45; 1974, Delhi, p. 93.
- 29. R.G. Bhandarkar, 1913, p. 49.

- 30. R.N. Dandekar, 1979, p. 256.
- R.P. Chanda, 1916, p. 100.
 Munsiram Sharma, 1958, p. 235.

He opines that the Parāśara Purāṇa, Vasiṣṭha-Saṁhitā, Śuka-Saṁhitā, Āsvalayana-Smṛṭietc. condemn the Pañcarātras. In contrast to this tendency of the dharma-śāstras, we have Yāmunācārya in the 11th century making all out effort in his Āgamaprāmāṇya to defend the vedic nature of the Pañcarātras.

- (a) Manu Smṛṭi, 5-180.
 (b) Parama Saṁhitā, 3-47 (Ed. and Tr. G.S.K. Aiyangar, GOS LXXXVI Baroda, 1940.)
- 33. S. Jaiswal, 1967
- 34. D.C. Sircar, 1942, p. 159 ff.
- 35. J.N. Banerjea, 1966, p. 52.
- 36. D.D. Kosambi, 1951, p. 3.
- 37. Cf. (1) Epigraphia Indica. Vol. III, Calcutta, pp. 305-6.(2) S. Jaiswal, 1967, pp. 36, 47, 48.
- 38. Kumārila Bhaṭṭa, Tantravārtikam 1.3.3.3. and 4.
- Bāṇabhaṭṭa, Harṣacaritam, 8.5. (Ed. P.V. Kane, Bombay, 1917).
- 40. Śāmkarabhāṣya on BS 2.2.42.

 Yady apyevam jātīyako'mśaḥ samānatvān na visamvādagocaro bhavati api tu amśāntaram visamvādasthānam ity atas tat pratyākhyānāyārambhah.
- 41. Ibid.
- 42. It is to be noted that in his bhāṣya on the Bhagavadgītā he considers the Bhāgavatamatam as aupaniṣadam matam (13.31). His reverence for Śāligrāma and Viṣṇupratimā is seen in various commentaries, e.g., Gītā 4.24 BS 1.3.14, 1.2.14, 1.2.7, 3.3.9, 4.1.3, 4.1.5, Chānd 8.1.1., 6.16.3.
- 43. Śāmkarabhāsya on BS 2.2.42-45.
- 44. For example while quoting *Mbh* . 12. 339. 14-15 in the *Saurabha* 2.3.46 Nimbārka avoids a line which contains the name of Nārāyaṇa, namely: "Sa hi nārāyaṇo jāeyaḥ sarvātmā puruṣo hi saḥ" and quotes the preceding and subsequent lines only:

Tatra yaḥ paramātmā' sau sa nityanirguṇaḥ, smṛtaḥ.... na lipyate phalaiścāpi padmapatram ivāmbhasā karmātmā tv aparo yo' sau mokṣabandhaiḥ sa yujyate. The implications of the above text are that either Nimbārka avoids the mention of Nārāyaṇa or that this portion of the text has a post-Nimbārka origin, which may mean that "Nārāyantzation" of Mahābhārata took place in post-Nimbārka days.

- 45. The *Pañcarātra* theory of creation seems to be influenced by the *Śākta tāntric* understanding of creation. Cf. *Ahirbudhnya-Saṃhitā* 3.28-30.
- 46. Rāmānuja defends the *Pañcarātra* doctrine of *Vyūhavāda* in BS 2.2.42-45. Madhava defends the *Pañcarātra* Āgamas in BS 1.1.3.
- 47. In a number of places the Saurabhakāra calls the ultimate reality as Bhagavān. For him Brahman is *Puruṣottama-Ramākānta-Bhagavān Vāsudeva*.
 - e.g. 1. Saurabha 1.1.4 The object of enquiry is Lord Vāsudeva alone, omniscient, possessed of all inconceivable powers, the cause of the origin and the rest of the universe, known through the evidence of the Veda alone, different and non-different from all and the Soul of all. All scriptures are in concordance with regard to Him alone this is the settled conclusion of the followers of the Upaniṣads (Viz. the Vedāntins)

2. Saurabha 1.1.1

An enquiry is to be instituted, at all times, into the Highest Person — Ramā's Husband (Ramākāntaḥ Puruṣottamaḥ), denoted by the term 'Brahman' the greatest of all because of His Infinite, inconceivable and innate nature, qualities, powers and so on... (Translation by Roma Bose. The translation of the Saurabha texts is taken from VPSK, Vol I and II)

- 48. J.N. Banerjea, 1966, p. 40.
- 49. In chapter four below we will show that the Saurabhakāra is the pūrvapakṣin of Śaṁkara in a number of places. Therefore the question of defending the Bhāgavata religion against any attacks of Śaṁkara does not arise at all.
- 50. Madhva too rejects Śāktavāda under these very sūtras and is here silent about the Vyūhavāda. But it must be pointed out that Madhava is familiar with a developed form of Śāktism than Nimbārka (Cf. Vide infra. chapter six) and very intelligently he defends the Paūcarātra system by elevating its scripture to an equal status with the Veda (Cf. Madvabhāṣya on 1.1.3 and 1.1.15).
- 51. Vide infra. chapter three.
- 52. Vide infra. chapter four.

- 53. Cf. Saurabha 3.3.30, 3.3.40-41. Nimbārka never mentions Vaikuntha or Goloka the favourite term used by the later Vaiṣṇavas to denote heaven. According to him the Jīva attains the world of Brahman through Brahmopāsana (Saurabha 3.3.40). In fact very little of Sectarianism can be found in the Saurabha. The idea of the Saurabhakāra on bhakti, karma and jñāna as means to liberation are far less developed than those in Rāmānuja. Vide infra chapters VIII to X.
- 54. Roma **Bose**, 1943, . 8-12.

 We will examine the traditional claim that Nimbārka is the author of works like *Rādhāṣṭakam*, *Krṣṇāṣṭakam*, *Prātahsmarana stotram* etc. *Vide infra*. chapter two.
- 55. Saurabha 1.1.1.
- 56. Amarakosa 1.1.27: Lakṣmi padamālayā padmā kamalā śrīrharipriyā indirā lokamātā mā kṣirodatanayā ramā, bhārgavi lokajanani kṣirasāgarakanyakā.
- 57. U.N. Dhall, 1978, p107.A.B. Keith, 1928, p. 413.
- 58. There is no trait even of any influence of the Rādhākṛṣṇa cult and philosophy on the Saurabhākara in his understanding of Brahman, world, the means to attain Moksa, and the state of Moksa itself.
- 59. Ācāryacaritam, pp. 34-35, 42-48. See chapter two for a detailed discussion on the historical validity of Ācāryacaritam.
- 60. The traditional Nimbārka school accepts that Nimbārka is the author of Daśa Śloki in which Rādhākṛṣṇa cult is advocated as the primary means to liberation. Vide infra chapter two.
- 61. J.N. **Banerjea** (1974, p. 422) points out that in archaeological investigations only reliefs belonging to late medieval and modern periods illustrate the cowherd (*Gopāla*) Kṛṣṇa's dalliance with the cowherdesses (*Gopis*), the chief among whom was Rādhā.
- 62. Visnu-Purāna 1.6, Mbh. 1.16. 90-95, Harivamśa 2.51.31.
- 63. S.C. Mukherji, 1966, p. 183.
- 64. S.B. Dasgupta, 1958, p. 101.
- 65. R.G. **Bhandarkar**, 1913, p.37. **Debala Mitra**, The *Ābhiras and their contribution to the Indian culture*. PIHC, Jaipur, 1951, p. 91.
- 66. For a comparative account of the Rāsakrīdā given in the

various Purāṇas. vide S.N **Tadpatrikar**, "The Kṛṣṇa Problem, ABORI, X, 1930, p. 269 ff.

The attempt to see references to Rādhā Kṛṣṇa-dalliance in the *Kuravai* dance of Māyāvan and Nappinnai (Pinnai) mentioned in *Silappadikāram* of the Tamil classical literature is without any significant success because the hero and the heroine in the *Kuravai* dance are Māyāvan and Nappinnai and not Kṛṣṇa and Rādhā.

- 67. Gāthāsaptaśati, 1.29 II.12, 14, V.42
- 68. Gāthāsaptaśati 1.29; could be translated as "Oh Kṛṣṇa by removing the dust (raised by the cows) from the face of Rādhikā with the breath of your mouth, you are stealing away the pride of these Bālavis and all other women".
- 69. A.B. Keith, 1928, Oxford, p. 224.
- 70. S.C. Mukherji, 1966, p. 186.
- 71. (a) Prabhosa (near Allahabad) inscription, (dating, perhaps to seventh century A.D.) according to Bühler (see E.I. II 482) reads: śrikṛṣṇagopirūpakarttā...
 - (b) Mahavallipuram sculptures dating seventh century A.D. show Kṛṣṇa surrounded by the *Gopas* and *Gopis*.
 - (c) Belāva inscription (E.I, Vol. 12, pp. 37-38) dating 8th century A.D. contains an inscription of king *Vanamāladeva* of Assam stating "gopījanānandita mānasasya..." *Vide* also S.C. **Mukherji**, 1966, p. 189.
 - (d) Mandor (Mandavipura the ancient capital of Marwar) pillar reliefs depict only the various phases of Kṛṣṇa's early life centred around stories found in the *Harivaṁśa* and the *Bhāgavata* (*Vide* J.N. **Banerjea**, 1974, pp. 421-22.

In none of these archaeological depictions, any importance is given to Rādhā. We have already noted that in the early Purāṇas including the *Bhāgavata* there is no mention of Rādhā (*Cf. f.n.* 66 supra).

Some of the Gaudīya Vaiṣṇava Goṣṇāmins such as Sanātana Gosvāmin and Jīva Gosvamin in their commentaries on the Bhāgavata took great pains to find Rādhā in the following stanza of the Bhāgavata Purāṇa which reads:

"Anayārādhito nūnam bhagavān harir īśvaraḥ Yan no vihāya govindaḥ prīto yām anayadraḥ"

(Bhāg p . 10-30.24)

It is very important to note that Śrīdhara Svāmin has not said anything about Rādhā in this stanza in his commentary on the *Bhāgavata*. It needs a lot of imagination to find Rādhā in "ārādhitaḥ"

- 72. (a) Bhaṭṭanārāyaṇa in the Nāndi of Veṇisaṁhāra prays:
 Kālindyāḥ pulineṣu kelikupitām utsṛjya rāse rasam
 gacchantīm anugacchato' śrukaluṣām kaṁsadviṣo rādhikām
 tat pāda pratimāniveśita padasyodbhūtaromodgater
 akṣuṇṇo nunayaḥ prasannadayitādṛṣṭasya puṣnātu vaḥ
 - (b) Vākpati (in the Gaudavaho 1.22) describes the marks of nails and bangles of Rādhā on the chest of Kṛṣṇa.
 - (c) Anandavardhana (in the *Dhvanyāloka* II.9) refers to Rādhā and creeper grove near Kālindi.
 - (d) Saduktikarṇāmṛta (attributed to Abhinanda) 54.2 refers to the Rādhākṛṣṇa dalliances in the creepers grove on the banks of Kālindi.
- 73. Rādhāmādhavayor jayanti yamunākule rahaḥ kelayāḥ. Vide Jayadeva's "Gitagovindam"
- 74. A.K. **Majumdar**, "A note on the development of the Rādhā cult" ABORI, Vol. 36, 1955, p. 238.
- 75. Ibid, p. 239.

These inscriptions contain the same benedictory verse in praise of Viṣṇu, which reads: may the active body of the enemy of Māra (i.e. Kṛṣṇa) which the face of Lakṣmī could not please, which the waters of the ocean could not cool, which the lotus of the lake of his own navel was powerless to pacify and which could not be soothed by the fragrant breath issuing from Rādhā's separation protect you.

- 76. S.B. Dasgupta, 1958, p. 100.
- 77. Perhaps due to the *Pañcarātra* and *Tāntric* influence on Vaisnavism.
- 78. A.K. **Majumdar**, The Anavada inscriptions are the earliest available document for the existence of Rādhā cult., ABORI, Vol, 36, 1955, pp. 231-257.
- 79. S.B. Dasgupta, 1958, p. 130.
- 80. Only the late Purāṇas like *Padma*, *Mahābhāgavata*, *Brahmavaivarta* mention Rādhā.
- 81. S.B. Dasgupta, 1958, p.130
- 82. It is a significant element for the identification of Rādhā with Laksmī, for the early Purāṇas present Lakṣmī as born of Padmā and even the Sāgara.
- 83. S.B. Dasgupta, 1958, p. 130.
- 84. A.K. Majumdar, 1955, p. 248.
- 85. H.H. **Wilson**, (Vol, III, 1864, p. 120) considers that the present form of the *Brahmavaivarta purāṇa* has originated

about four centuries ago with the Vallabhācārya and the Gosvāmins of Gokula.

R.C. Hazra, (1940, pp. 166-167) feels that the *Brahmavaivarta* was most probably composed in the eighth century A.D., with various revisions and additions down to the sixteenth century A.D. C.M. **Brown**, (1974, p. 21 and 37) establishes that the earlier form of the *Brahmavaivarta* was "*Brahmaite*" in nature. In the course of subsequent versions and editions it was slowly transformed into a *Vaiṣṇavite* text. *Vide infra* chapter five for some more details on the *Brahmavaivarta* purāṇa.

- 86. Brahmavaivarta Purāṇa, Śrikṛṣṇa Janmakhaṇḍa, chapter 15.
- 87. S.B. Dasgupta, 1958, p. 106.
- 88. S.B. **Dasgupta**, (1958, p. 139) points out that there is a favourite Bengali saying: "Kānūchāḍagītanāi" (without Kṛṣṇa no lyric).
- 89. Ibid, p. 276.
- 90. See our assessment of this traditional belief in the next chapter.
- 91. See Vedānta Kaustubha 1.1.1.
- 92. Vide infra. chapter five on Srinivasa.
- 93. Vide infra. p. 53.
- 94. Saurabha 1.3.8. The plenty, taught by the highest teacher, the venerable Sanatkumāra, to our preceptor, the reverend Nārada, in the passage "But the plenty alone should be enquired after" (Chānd 7.22.1) is not the vital-breath, but the Highest Person. Why? "Because of the teaching" of the Plenty as "above" the vital-breath.
- 95. R.G. **Bhandarkar**, 1913, p. 41 (Here I have no intention to investigate the actual authorship of the *Nāradapañcarātra*.
- 96. D.D. Kavisvara, 1965, p. 39.
- 97. AC p. 56, p. 57, SN p. 4. SNM pp. 7-8.
- 98. Nārada Bhakti Sūtra 83

"ityevam vadanti janajalpa nirbhayā ekamatāḥ kumāravyāsa śuka śāmḍilya-garga-viṣṇu kauṇḍinya śeṣoddhavāruṇi balihanumad vibhīṣaṇādayo bhaktyācāryā.

- 99. We consider Nimbārka is the pūrvapakṣinof Śamkara in some parts of the Śāmkarabhāṣya. Vide infra chapter four.
- 100. BS 3.3.32 Yāvad adhikāram avasthitir ādhikārikāṇām.
- 101. Saurabha 3.3.32 of Vasistha and the rest, on the other hand, "there is abiding so long as the office lasts", owing to the influence of the works of which their office is the result.

- 102. Śāmkarabhāṣya 3.3.32 "Sanatkumāro'pi brahmaṇa eva mānasaḥ putraḥ svayam rudrāya varapradānāt-skandatvena prādurbabhūva. Evam evadakṣa nāradaprabhṛtīnām bhūyasī dehāntarotpattiḥ kathyate tena tena nimittena smṛtau.
- 103. Saurabha 1.1.1. "...bhagavatprasadepsuṇā tad darśanecchālampaṭenācāryaikadevena śrīguru bhaktyekahārdena mumukṣuṇā..."
- 104. L.K. Goswami, 1972, p.53.
- 105. Gopal Misra **Kaviratna**, "Damoda deva ghosa ratna", Gauhati, 1976, Introduction, p. VII
- 106. Ibid, p. VIII, Cf. Bhagavata Purana, 1.4.30, 1.5.2.
- 107. N.D. Sharma, 1978, Mathura, p.5
- 108. A.P. Bhattacharya, 1966, pp. 29-30.
- 109. The *Bhedābheda* doctrine of Nimbārka also contains two opposite principles of *bheda* and *abheda*.
- 110. Śāmkarabhāsya on BS 3.3.32.
- 111. The Saurabha, 3.3.32.
- 112. This original personality of the sage is seen in the Chāndogyopaniṣad, 7.22.
- 113. Roma Bose, 1943, p.6.
- 114. Ibid. (Italics mine).
- 115. Cf. Saurabha 1.3.8.

Chapter 2

- 1. Vrajavallabha, 1974, p. 66. See also f.n. 153 below.
- 2. Ibid., p. 68.
- 3. AC, pp. 35 and 42-48.

Vrajavallabha, (1974 pp. 10-13) quotes from the following *Purāṇas* wherein Nimbārka is mentioned as the *avatāra* of *Sudarśanacakra*.

- (a) Bhavişyottarapurāṇa: Bhagavan nimbārka brahmāṇḍa svāmi prādurbhāva khaṇḍa.
- (b) Vāmanapurāṇa: Valivāmanasamvāde śrīniyamānandotpattir dvātṛmśat tamo' dhyāya.
- (c) Bhavişyapurāṇa: Pratisarga parvaṇi catūryuga khaṇḍa paraparyyāye kaliyugiyetihāsasamuccaye rāmānanda nimbārka samudpattivarṇanaṁ nāma saptamo' dhyāyaḥ.
- 4. Bhāgavata Purāṇa 1.3.6, Kārtike śuklapakṣe vai navamyām.
- 5. Bhāgavata Purāṇa 1.4.17.

- 6. The nucleus of this mythology seems to be the incident in *Chāndogyopaniṣad* 7. It seems to be probable that in the succeeding ages the *Purāṇakāras* developed beautiful legends with vivid details around this *Chāndogyan* tradition.
- 7. The basis of such a belief seems to be the reference that Nimbārka makes to Nārada as his *guru* is *Saurabha* 1.3.8. For the mythological details see *AC* pp. 7-21, 57-64, also **Kathiyababa** 1972, pp. 23-26.
- 8. *Vide supra* chapter one for our discussion on Nārada as the *guru* of Nimbārka.
- 9. AC, p. 48.
- 10. Stotraratnāvalī, Mathura (ed.) 1925, pp. 124-25.
- 11. Cf. Also the preface of the Śrutyantakalpavali of Purusottama **prasāda vaisņava**, Benares (ed.) 1927, p. 4. Vide also the preface of the Saurabha, CSS (ed.) p.3.
- 12. AC, p. 35.
- 13. Harivyāsadeva, Siddhānta Kusumāñjali, Bombay (ed.), 1925, p.3.
- 14. Mañjūṣā, Benares (ed.), 1907, p.1
- 15. The guruparamparā given in Stotraratnāvalī (pp. 127-136) contains the names of the ācāryas of the school including the mythological Hamsa, the four Kumaras and Narada. The others are Nimbarka, Śrinivasacarya, Viśvacarya, Vilāsācārya, Purusottamācārya, Svarūpācārya, Mādhavācārya, Balabhadrācārya, Padmācārya, Śyāmācārya, Krpācārya, Gopālācārva. Sundarabhatta. Padmanābhabhatta, Upendrabhatta, Rāmacandrabhatta, Vāmanabhatta, Krsnabhatta, Padmākarabhatta, Śravaneśabhatta, Bhūribhatta, Mādhavabhatta, Gopālabhatta, Gopīnāthabhatta, Keśavabhatta, Keśavakāsmīribhatta, Śribhatta, and Harivvāsadeva. Since various lists of the guruparampara contains these 35 common names and indicate a split in the Sect after the 31st successor of Nimbarka, called Śrī Harivyasadeva, it seems certain that the earliest list was made only after the split with the intention of claiming authority and succession. Therefore the question whether such a list, made at a later stage, guarantees as unbroken succession is open.
- 16. The Maňjūṣākāra criticizes the Pratibimbavāda (Cf, Maňjūṣā, pp. 5-6); Avacchedavāda and Upādhivāda (pp. 6-7); Nirguṇavāda (pp. 60-63) and Vivartavada (pp. 63-69).
 Besides it must also be pointed out that since the Mañjūsā

is a commentary on $Daśaślok\overline{i}$ in which $R\overline{a}dh\overline{a}$ is presented as the divine consort of Hari, it could be composed only after Rādhā has acquired "divine status" which according to scholars is after the tenth century A.D. (Vide supra p 31).

- 17. Kisoridasa, 1922, p. 2.
- R.G, Bhandarkar, 1913, p. 64.
 Jadunath Sinha, 1973, p. 1.
- 19. L.K. Goswami, 1972 p.53.
- 20. AC, p. 48.
- 21. AC p. 35.
- 22. Vide infra chapter six p 163.
- 23. "Siddhāntakusumānjali" (Ed. by Vāsudeva Śarman), 1925, p.3.
- 24. AC, p. 35.
- 25. AC, p. 48 Cf. also the Preface to Saurabha, (CSS ed.) p. 2,
- 26. Harivamśa 1.50.23. Viṣṇudharmottara P. 1.269, 2. 153-64 Bṛhat Saṃhitā, 43, 1-2. Meghadūta, 2.53. Mudrārākṣasa, 3.21.
- 27. Fleet (CII 3.19) gives an account of an inscription dating to 424 A.D., stating such a conception. Perhaps the importance of the Kārtikapūrnimā might have prompted the followers of Nimbārka to consider it as his birthday, since he is believed to be an avatāra of the Sudarśanacakra in order to revive and to propagate the Bhāgavatadharma, which was declining due to the stiff competition from the Buddhists and the Jainas (Cf. also AC, pp. 42-48, 34-35).
- 28. Perhaps the belief that he was born on Kārtikapūrnimā might have originated after the Rādhākṛṣṇa cult was absorbed into the Nimbārka Sect. According to the jyotiṣa books one who is born on Kārtikapūrṇimā is born in the very vamśa of Hari.
- 29. AC, p. 56.
- 30. AC, pp. 35, 37, 39.
- 31. Ibid, p. 61.
- 32. Ibid, pp. 34, 37.
- 33. Kaustubha, 1.1.1. SAKV p. 3. T.P. p. 1.
- 34. SK, p. 3.
- 35. Kaustubha, Manglapātḥa (Vrindāvana edition) 1932, p. 1.
- 36. Manjūsā, p. 1.

SJ, pp. 2,6

SS, pp.1.

SAKV, pp.1, 148

VM, p.1

- 37. AC, pp. 52-56.
- 38. Bhavisya P. (Bombay Ed.) Prati sarga parva, 4th Khanda 7. 80-85.
- 39. Ibid, Cf, AC, pp. 52-56.
- 40. Cf. "Śrīnimbārka vikrānti" attributed to Audumbara muni, stanza 59-62 & 134-137; edited and commented by **Vraja Vallabha Sarana**, Vrindavana, 1941.
- 41. Roma Bose, 1943, p. 4.
- 42. Ibid,
- 43. AC, p. 96 ff.
- 44. AC, p, 72: Keśavakāśmirin in the manglapātḥa of his TP gives another etymological explanation of the name Nimbārka namely that he was like a medicinal fruit (nimba) in curing people from the worldly disease and that he was like the sun (arka) in removing the darkness of the heart.

Vrajavallabha Sarana (1974, p.68) quotes another etymological explanation from the Samohanatantra in the following stanza:

"Havirddhānābhidhās tu cakram āsīnmahāmuniḥ so'tapyatatapas tīvram nimbakvārthaikabhojanaḥ"

- 45. Vide supra, fn. 36.
- 46. LS, p. 1.
- 47. GM, p. 2.
- 48. AC, p. 56.
- 49. It seems that the belief that he was the avatāra of Sudarśana was already popular by the time of the Mañjūṣākāra (i.e. Puruṣottama), who assigns his birth to the Sudarśanāśrama. (Cf. Mañjūṣā, p.1 Benaras Ed.), 1907).
- 50. Baldeva **Upadhyaya** considers Nimbārka as the first *Bhāgavatācārya* (*Vide*, *Bhāgavata Sampradāya*; Varanasi, pp. 315-317).
- 51. It is less probable that the *arka* element came to his name from the belief that he is the *avatāra* of the *Sudarśanacakra* because in that case one has yet to explain how the belief of his being an *avatāra* of the *Sudarśanacakra* originated, since such a belief could naturally originate only after his death. Therefore it seems to be more reasonable to hold that the *arka* element originally belonged to his name and that the

- arka element in his name gave rise to the belief that he is the avatāra of the Sudarśanacakra.
- 52. It is less reasonable to consider that the nimba element came to his name from the legends connected with the nimba tree, because such legends lose their raison d'être without the former. Besides, as we have seen above, if the Telinga tradition is more probable, the assignment of his birth to Nimbagrāma or Nimbapura is less historical and more etymological.
- 53. Kaustubha, 1.1.1.
- 54. Manglapātha of the Kaustubha.
- 55. Manjūsā, p.1.
- 56. Vide f. ns. 51 and 52 above.
- 57. During a conversation with me on 12-10-1981 at Śrīji temple at Vrindāvana, Vrajavallabha Sarana told me that he had a very hard time in preventing Pd. Amolakarama Sastri from completing the incomplete work of Devācārya called Siddhāntājahnavī which is a bhāṣya on the Brahmasūtras. Only the first pāda of the first adhyāya of the original work is available. Pd. Amolakarama wanted to complete the work. Vrajvallabha Sarana had to point out to him that such a method of scholarship would add a lot of historical problems for the schools. Had Vrajavallabha Sarana failed in his persuasion, we would have been provided with a manuscript of the remaining portion of the Siddhāntajāhnavī, naturally attributed to Devācārya, allegedly the twelfth successor to Nimbārka
- 58. (a) Śrutisiddhānta mañjarī by Vrajeśaprasāda, ed. by Ratna Gopala **Bhaṭṭa**, CSS No. 41. Benaras, 1908.
 - (b) Śrutyanta Kalpavalli by Purusottamaprasāda Vaisņava I ed. Gopala Sastrin **Nene** CSS No. 356, 357, Benaras, 1927.
 - (c) Śrutyanta Sura druma by Purusottama prāsad Vaisnava II ed. Ratna Gopala **Bhatta**, CSS No, 135, Benaras, 1907.
- 59. Cf. The first edition of SNKS by Kisoridasa, 1922, Etawah.
- 60. Roma Bose, 1943, pp. 10-11.
- A.P. Bhattacharya, 1966, p. 52 ff.
 Vrajavallabha, 1974, p. 75.
 Kathiyababa, 1972, pp. 87, 112.
- 62. The entire Saurabha is free from any polemic against the advaita theories of Śamkara. It is just and proper for a bhāṣyakāra to deal with the philosophical problems and to throw out the doctrines of the opponent in the course of the

- bhāṣya itself rather than complaining against the views of the opponent to the iṣṭadeva as done in the SNKS.
- 63. Kathiyababa, 1972, pp. 107-114.
- 64. Roma **Bose**, 1943, p. 16. *Vide* also **Aufrecht Theodore**, The Catalogus catalogorum, p. 428.
- 65. S.N. **Dasgupta**, 1952, p. 400, too had a similar fate. Inspite of his being unable to verify the said manuscript he jumps to the conclusion that Nimbārka is a post-Madhava bhāṣyakāra on the presumption that Nimbārka has really written a work called the *Madhwamukhamardana*.
- 66. **Erich Frauwallner** (1973, pp. 320-21) speaks of an *ācārya* called Madhva, belonging to the Sāmkhya School.
- 67. Ānandāshrama Series 113, published with *Tippani* and *Vyākhyā* by **Palghat Narayana Sastri**, Pune 1940. This edition is prepared by K Ramacandra Sastri **Suri** from a rare copy of the *Madhvatantramukhamardana*, printed in the *grantha* scripts in the *Cola* country (*Grantha lipyā coladeśe mudritam atiprācinam...*) which was in the possession of P.R. Siva Subrahmanya **Sastri**, Head of the *Dharma Śāstra* Department in the Mysore *Pāthaśālā* (*Vide* Introduction to the Ānandāśrama edition p. 9) Dixit himself is said to be the author of the *vyākhyāna* of these stanzas known as *madhavamatavidhvamsa* or *Madhavatantramukhamardana vyākhyāna*.
- 68. R.L. Mitra, Notices of Sanskrit Manuscripts No. 2826 as pointed by Roma Bose, 1943, p. 13.
- 69. N.D. Sharma, 1978, p. 13.
- 70. The Catalogus Catalogorum by Theodore **Aufrecht**, Part 2, pp. 14, 64. **Bhandarkar**, 1894, Report on the Search for Sanskrit Manuscripts p. 56.
- Catalogus Catalogorum, 1896, Part 2, p. 63.
 A.V. Kathavate. Report on the Search for Sanskrit Manuscripts, Bombay, 1901, p. 29.
- 72. Catalogus Catalogorum, Part 1, 1891, p. 297.
- 73. Roma Bose, 1943, p. 178.
- 74. Catalogue of Sanskri Manuscripts in the Library of the India Office by Ernest **Windsich** and Julius **Eggeling**. Part IV, London 1894, *MS* No. 2486.
- 75. A manuscript written in 1825 (Vikrama year) by Rādhāramanadāsa is with **Vrajavallabha** at Vrindāvana. It also contains the Śrīnimbārkavikrānti attributed to

Audumbaramuni. It may be noted that **Vrajavallabha** has also a manuscript of the work *Stavasmaraṇiya* written down by a certain *Rādhikādāsa*. Although the name of the scribes of *Svadharmādhva bodha* and *Stavasmaraṇiya* are different, namely Rādhāramaṇadāsa and Rādhikādāsa, the handwriting of the manuscipts is identical.

- 76. N.D. Sharma, 1978, p. 22.
- 77. Kathiyababa, 1972, p. 44.
- 78. The *Rādhāṣṭakam* is mentioned in *AC*, pp. 122-125 and the *Kṛṣṇaṣṭakam* is mentioned in *AC*, pp. 130-133. As we have pointed out earlier the *AC* is a much later work.
- 79. In this context it may be pointed out that there was a time when the authorship of even the *guruparamparā* was attributed to Nimbārka himself. *Vide Harigurustavamālā* noted in **Bhandarkar's** 'Report of the Search for Sanskrit Manuscripts,' Bombay, 1882-1883.
- 80. Cf. Prapannasuratarumañjari, published by Kisoradasa, p. 1, It is a commentary on the Prapannakalpavali and is attributed to Sundarabhaṭṭa (Cf. N.D. Sharma, 1978, p. 23). Kisoradasa has also published a commentary on Mantrarahasyaṣoḍasī, also alleged to be written by Sundarabhaṭṭa named Śrīmantrārtha rahasya ṣoḍaśī (Vrindāvana, 1937).
- 81. PK (Sloka) 4.
- 82. PK, 19.
- 83. PK, 24.
- 84. PK, 4-5.
- 85. PK, 24.
- 86. *PK*, 19.
- 87. PK, 6-8.
- 88. PK, 9.
- 89. PK, 10-11.
- 90. PK, 12-14.
- 91. PK, 14.
- 92. PK, 15.
- 93. PK, 22-23.
- 94. *PK*, 18-21 exhort the devotee to give up all sense of egoity and feel completely merged in his *guru*.
- 95. The Mantrarahaṣyaṣoḍaśi is a very good instrument in the hands of the gurueven to demand a type of "complete slavery" from his disciple who aspires for liberation.

- 96. MRS, 1-2.
- 97. Klīm Kṛṣṇāya govindāya gopījanavallabhāya svāhā. According to MRS, the mantra "Om" and the bījamantra of the Sect "klīm" denote the same reality or have the same meaning. Just as the syllables "a" "u" and "m" contained in "Om" denote Hari, guru and jīva respectively, the syllables "k" "i" and "m" contained in "Klim" denote Kṛṣṇa, guru and the ksetrajāa (Vide MRS 3-5).
- 98. See the Introduction by Pt. Ramacandradasa Vaisnava to the MRS edited by Kisoridasa, 1937, pp. 1-4.
- 99. MRS, 17.
- 100. MRS, 8.
- 101. MRS, 9, NB. The idea of Mokṣa in the Saurabha is "brahma sākṣātkārādhetos tena saha sāmyaṁ yāti...paraṁ sāmyam upaiti (Cf, Saurabha 3.2.26).

For the Saurabhakāra mokṣa is not only Brahmas varūpalābha but also ātmas varūpalābha. (Saurabha, 4.4.1-2). Thus there is a difference in their understanding of mokṣa by the author of Saurabha and the author of MRS.

- 102. MRS, 15.
- 103. MRS, 13,15.
- 104. MRS, 13.
- 105. MRS, 15-16.
- 106. MRS, 17.
- 107. MRS, 18.
- 108. Saurabha 1.1.1: bhagavat prasādepusnā tad darśanecchālampaṭena. śrīgurubhaktyeka harddena. Saurabha 4.2.16: Prasannena vedyenānugṛhito.
- 109. Saurabha 1.1.1.: ācāryaikadevena śrīgurubhaktyeka harddena mumukṣuṇā... Saurabha 1.3.8: Paramācāryaih śrīkumārair asmad gurave śrīmannāradāyopadiṣṭo..."
- 110. Saurabha 3.4.1.
- 111. Ibid, 3.2.24-25.
- 112. Ibid, 1.1.1.; 3.2.24.
- 113. Saurabha, 3.2.24: bhaktiyoge dhyāne tu vyajyate brahma...sūryāgnyādīnām yathā tadarthikṛtasādhanābhyāsād āvirbhāvas tad vad brahmano' py avaiśeṣyam brahmaprakāśo bhavati, samrādhana lakṣaṇād upāyād brahmadarsanam bhavatītyarthaḥ...brahma sākṣātkārād hetos tena saha sāmyam yāti...."
- 114. R.G. Bhandarkar, 1913, pp. 65-66.

115. Perhaps on such grounds Radhakrishnan and Bhandarkar were forced to assign Nimbārka to a post-Rāmānuja period. (Vide infra p 67).

Suffice it to say here that such conclusions are based on the wrong premise that *PK* and *MRS* are actually the work of Nimbārka.

- 116. Saurabha, 1.3.34 ff.
- 117. AC, p. 120: Harivyāsadeva, Siddhānta Kusumāñjali, p. 3, Bombay edition, 1925.
- 118. Vedāntaratnamañjūṣā of Puruṣottama, ed. by Ratna Gopala Bhatta, Benaras, 1907.
- 119. Siddhāntakusumañjaliof Harivyāsadeva edited by Vasudeva Sarman, Nirnaya Sagar Press, Bombay 1925.
- 120. Laghumañjūṣā of Giridhara Prapanna edited by Dhundiraja Sastrin, CSS No. 358, Benaras, 1927.
- 121. DS. 4: Significantly the Saurabhakāra never mentions Kṛṣṇa by name in the entire Saurabha.
- 122. DS, 5: Note also that there is no place for Rādhā in the Saurabha.
- 123. DS. 4-5.
- 124. DS, 8: The means for salvation according to the Saurabhakāra is vidyā, which is also called Brahmopāsana or dhyāna (Vide infra chapter ten).
- 125. DS, 9 kṛpāsya dainyādiyuji prajāyate yayā bhavet premaviśeṣalakṣaṇā bhaktir hy ananyādhipater mahātmanaḥ sā cottamā sādhanarūpikā parā
- 126. Ibid.
- 127. Vide supra p. 31 f.
- 128. DS, 9.
- 129. DS, 7.

sarvam hi vijnānam ato yathārthakam śrutismṛtibhyo nikhilasya vastunaḥ brahmātmakatvāditi vedavinmatam trirūpatā' pi śrutisūtrasādhitā!!

- 130. Roma Bose, 1943, p. 9.
- 131. L.K. **Goswami**, 1972, p. 51. It is my suggestion that the *DS* is an amalgam of various stanzas some of which come from pre-Kaustubha times, put together at a later time when *Rādhā* cult and *premaviseṣalakṣaṇā bhakti* became popular among the masses.

- 132. Keśavakāśmiribhatta, *Tattva-Prakāsikā*, ed. **Baldeo Prasada**, Vrindāvana edition, 1908, p. 380.
- 133. Mañjūṣā, 1907, p. 97, It is claimed that a few leaves of Sadācāraprakāśa is found in a place called Aruṇaghāṭa in Bengal. See SNM, p. 9.
- 134. Sundarabhaṭṭa, Dvaitādvaita siddhāntasetukā, a commentary on the Siddhānta jāhnavī of Devācārya. p. 3.: It is to be noted that it is the same Sundarabhaṭṭa to whom the commentary on PK called Prapannasuratarumañjarī and another on MRS called Śrīmantrārtharahasyaṣoḍaśī developing the doctrines of prapatti and gurūpasatti respectively are attributed.
- 135. AC, p. 56.
- 136. AC, pp. 34-35, 42-48.
- 137. Vrajavallabha, 1974, pp. 9-19, 66-72.
- 138. **Kathiyababa**, 1972, pp. 123-143, Cf. also A.P. **Bhattacharya**, 1966, pp. 32, 35-38.
- 139. As quoted by Vrajavallabha, 1974, p. 12.
- 140. Kathiyababa, 1972, p. 143.
- 141. Traditional belief is that the *Kaliyuga* began with the end of the Mahābhārata war, which is believed to have taken place in 3102, B.C. *Vide infra*.
- 142. A.P. Bhattacharya, 1966, p. 32. points out that from time to time, on the one hand, additions were made in the *Purāṇas* and on the other hand, passages were either deleted or abridged. This fact makes it difficult to judge which verses are part of the original *Purāṇas*. Therefore he concludes that the *Paurāṇic* account of the date of Nimbārka is not above suspicion. (*Vide* also p. 91).
- 143. Kathiyababa, 1972, p. 93 ff,
- 144. S.L. **Pandey**, 1974, pp. 17-26, rejects the identification of the author of *Brahmasūtras* with Vedavyāsa as misleading, unfounded, historically injustified and patently baseless.
- 145. Kathiyababa, 1972, p. 93.
- 146. **Shiv Kumar**, "A study of the Sāmkhya thought as found in the Brāhmaṇical systems of Indian philosophy". A doctoral thesis submitted to the University of Poona, 1976, p. 76. Cf. also Ram Suresh **Pandey**, 1972, p. 78. He opines that the Sāmkhya Sūtras were composed after the time of Vācaspati Miśra.
- 147. Frazer, Literary History of India, 1920, p. 196.
- 148. A.B. **Keith**, *Karma mīmāmsā*, 1921, p. 5.

- 149. BS, 2.2.18-32.
- 150. S.L. Pandey, 1974, p. 27.
- AC, p. 114.
 Cf. Also Kathiyababa, 1972, p. 102.
- 152. Vide, chapter on Śrinivāsa below.
- 153. As pointed out by Roma Bose, the AC begins with the following narration. "Once several highly learned men like Svabhūdeva and the like approached the great sage Harivyāsadeva in the Dhruvakṣetra in Mathura and wanted to hear the biography of Nimbārka, the founder of their Sect. Therefore Harivyāsadeva first made obeisance to his guru Śribhaṭṭa and began to tell them about the life and doings of Nimbārka (Vide Roma Bose, 1943, Calcutta, p. 2).

Vrajavallabha Sarana, 1974, p. 75, points out that there were two or three Śrinivāsas and three or four Puruṣottamas in the Sect.

- 154. A.P. Bhattacharya, 1966, pp. 57-68.
- 155. Kathiyababa, 1972, p. 116.
- 156. **Kathiyabab** also brings further evidence from the traditional belief that Keśavakāśmīri had a meeting with Śrī Gaurānga Mahāprabhu, who is said to be born in 1480 A.D. (i.e. 1542 Samvat). According to **Kathiyababa** perhaps the meeting might have taken place when Śrī Gaurāngā was 25 years of age. Thus **Kathiyababa**, as a first step, concludes that Keśavakāśmīri lived at least 450 years. He gets a further help from Vimānavihāri **Manjumdar** who in his Śrīcaitanyacarita kā upādāna (p. 311) states that Keśavakāśmīri was alive at the time of Vallabha. Therefore the final conclusion of **Kathiyababa** is that Keśavakāśmīri might have lived for 500 years.

Vide Kathiyababa, 1972, pp. 121-128.

- 157. Vide supra p. 55.
- 158. Kathiyababa, 1972, p. 115.
- 159. Vrajavallabha, 1974, pp. 78-79. It is to be noted that the list of succession according to Kathiyababa (Vide Kathiyababa, 1972, pp. 66-69) and that of Vrajavallabha agree up to Harivyāsadeva (i.e. the 31st successor of Nimbārka). The differences in the list of guruparamparā after Harivyāsadeva shows that a major split took place after Harivyāsadeva who had twelve disciples. Perhaps the Nimbārka Sect suffered the consequences of many such earlier splits. Kathiyababa follows the Sect led by Svabhūdeva and Vrajavallabha

- follows the Sect led by Paraśurāma. Both Svabhūdeva and Paraśurāma were two of the 12 disciples of Harivyāsadeva. In fact there are many sub-Sects within the Nimbārka Sect, each having its own special list of guruparamparā.
- 160. For example we know practically nothing about the ācāryas between Puruṣottama (Mañjūṣākāra) and Devācārya (the 12th successor of the school.) See also f.n 90 and 92 in chapter six below.
- 161. R.G. Bhandarkar, 1913, pp. 62-63.
- 162. N.D. Sharma, 1978, pp. 8-9 and 13.
- 163. There might have been exceptions. It seems that some great men were not denied the right to succession because they had been married before their "initiation". An example in modern times is Śrī Śantadāsa, Vide Kathiyababa, 1972, pp. 69, 115.
- 164. S.N. **Dasgupta** (1940, p. 400) is less generous in so far as he assigns only an average of ten to twelve years as the pontifical period of an *ācārya* in the Nimbārka Sect.
- 165. Pratisargaparva, 4th Khāṇḍa, 7th chapter, verses 77-79.
- 166. It has already been pointed out that there is another tradition, also contained in the AC that Nimbārka was born on Vaiśākhatṛtīya (Vide Supra p. 42).
 - The belief that Nimbārka was born on Kārtikapūrnimā is based not only on theological reasons as pointed out earlier, but also on astrological reasons because according to some jyotisa books like Bhrgusamhitā (Cf. Karmavipāka chapter of Bhrgusamhitā, 4th Khāṇḍa, verses 18 ff) declare those who are born on Kārtikapūrnimā as great men. They are born in the very Vamsa of Hari.
- 167. Vide also Vrajavallabha, 1974, p. 14.
- 168. Ibid.
 - The key to the chart is as follows: Ca = Candra; Bu = Budha; Sa = Sani; Ra = Rahu; Su = Surya; Surya;
- 169. **Vrajavallabha**, (1974, p. 14,) too accepts that there is a mistake in the chart, which he attributes to the carelessness of the writer or that of the "proofreader".
- 170. **Kathiyababa**, 1972, p. 139. It also shows that on the basis of the purāṇic accounts one is able to make more than one horoscope. În fact, we are able to make horoscopes even of hypothetical and mythical personalities. The mere fact of the existence of a horoscope or the possibility of making a horoscope does not *tpso facto* warrant the actual existence of
- 328 the person, whose horoscope it is supposed to be.

- 171. Alexander Cunningham, 1970, pp. 31-32.
- 172. Śrɨmad Bhāgavatam, Ch. 1, verse 66 considers that the Kaliyuga began after the death of Kṛṣṇa. Yadā mukundo bhagavān kṣmām tyaktvā svapadam gataḥ tad dināt kalir āyātaḥ sarvāsādhanabādhakaḥ

This shows that there is no unanimity among the different traditions about the origin of the *Kaliyuga*.

- 173. C.V. **Vaidya**, Śrīman Mahābhāratācen Marātḥi Surasabhāṣāntra, 1918, Vol. 10, pp. 116-117.
- 174. Though in this chart *Candra* is not specifically mentioned we can infer it being in the sign *Vṛścika* (Scorpio) in conjunction with *Sūrya*, *Budha*, *Rāhu* and *Śukra*, because on *Amāvāsya* day the *Sūrya* and the *Candra* make an angle of 0' degree.
- 175. Chart by M.D. **Pandit**, Poona. The plus (+) sign in the chart indicates that the probable position of the planet can be either $r\bar{a}$ si.
- 176. Jayantyām jayarūpiņyām jajāna jagadīsvaraḥ yena sarvam idam visvam vedadharme niyojitam !! Vide supra p 44.
- 177. We have already pointed out that the tradition of placing Nimbārka's birth in the kārtikapūrnimā appears to be prompted by theological reasons. In fact the older tradition seems to be the one that considers Nimbārka to be born on Vaiśākhatrtīyā. If that is true, the older tradition is also against the account given by the Bhavisyapurāṇa.

Chapter 3

- Some consider him to be a post-Madhva commentator. A few scholars like R.L. Mitra place him even after Vallabha. Cf. Roma Bose 1943, p. 17.
- 2. R.G. Bhandarkar, 1913, pp. 87-88.
- 3. Roma Bose, 1943, pp. 14-17.
- 4. D.D, **Kavisvara**, *Vedāntapārijāta Saurabha*, 1965, Poona, pp. 39 & 49 ff. of his introduction to the book.

Others like S. **Radhakrishnan**, Rajendranath **Ghosh**, Parasuram **Caturvedi**, Pulinavihari **Bhattacharya**, etc., also consider Nimbārka to be a post-Rāmānuja commentator.

Cf. Kathiyababa, 1972, pp. 47-55.

- 5. Manuscripts 709 of the collection of 1884-87, Vide Bhandarkar, 1913, p.88.
- Vide supra p. N.D. Sharma, 1978, p.8.
 B.G. Tilak feels that Nimbārka should have lived at least 100-200 years earlier than the date Bhandarkar has assigned him to. See B.G. Tilak, 1935, Poona, p. 17.
- 7. S.N. Dasgupta, 1952, Vol. III. p. 400.
- 8. Ibid.
- 9. Saurabha 3.3.30.
- 10. Ibid. 4.3.1. 3.3.31.
- 11. For Rāmānuja the prathamapakṣa opponent is generally the Brahmavādin while the dvitīyapakṣa is the aupādikabhedābhedavāda and the tṛtīya pakṣa is the svābhāvika bhedābhedavāda.
- 12. Rāmānuja "Vedārthasamgraha" pp. 99-102. See also p. 103 for further refutation of the bhedābhedavāda.
- 13. Kaustubha 2.1.13...tathā brahma jīvayor api svābhāviko bhedābhedasambandhaḥ..." (See also footnote 22 of chapter five.
- 14. Śribhāṣya 1.1.1.
- 15. Hemādri, Caturvarga cintāmani, Vratakhaṇḍa, Chapter II, published by the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Calcutta, 1875, p. 784. This stanza is quoted by Kamalākāra Bhaṭṭa (1595-1644 AD) in his Nirṇayasindhu, second pariccheda, brādrapada janmāṣṭamī prasanga. Venkatesvara press, edition 1849, saka Year; p. 93).
- 16. The present edition of the *Bhaviṣya purāṇa* does not contain this stanza.
- 17. Kathiyababa, 1972, pp. 120-23.
- 18. It is also claimed by the scholars of the Nimbārka school that certain stone inscriptions of Śrīnimbāditya prāsāda belonging to the 12th century Vikram year are found at Adilabad in Andhra Pradesh (Cf. **Vrajavallabha**), 1974, p. 72.
- 19. Vācaspati Miśra criticises the bhinnābhinnavāda in a number of places in Bhāmati. Cf. Bhāmati on Brahmasūtras 1.1.4; 1.2.6; 1.4.22; 2.1.12; 2.3.43-6; 3.2.27-30.
- 20. This is Sūtra 1.1.31 according to Bhāskara. He omits the portion āśritatvād iha tadyogāt.
- 21. Since Bhāskara says *anye patḥanti*, it may mean, from a grammatical point of view that more than two commentators accept this extra *sūtra*. It can also mean that a particular

school or tradition does so. This acknowledgement of Bhāskara that *anye patḥanti* an extra *sutra* here does not necessarily mean that he is aware that Śrīnivāsa also reads this extra *sūtra* here as claimed by **Vrajavallabha** (1974, p. 78).

- 22. This is sūtra 2.3.32 in Bhāskarabhāṣya.
- 23. Saurabha, 2.3.31. On the doctrine of an all-pervasive soul, the perception and the non-perception, the bondage and the release of the soul must become eternal. The soul will be either eternally fettered or eternally free. Thus there must be a restriction with regard to the one or the other.
- 24. Saurabha, 2.3.32-39;49.
- 25. Vide infra. chapter four.
- 26. Bhāskarabhāṣya 2.3.29.
- 27. As will be pointed, Śrīnivāsa reaffirms that the sūtra is directed against the vedāntins who accept cetanabhutātma vibhutvavāda. (Vide chapter five below).
- 28. Vide. Bhāskarabhāṣya on BS 2.3.32.

Chapter 4

- 1. This is sūtra 2.3.50 according to Śaṁkara, Bhāskara, Baladeva, etc. Śaṁkara reads the sūtra as ābhāsaḥ eva ca. Rāmānuja gives two alternative readings, one like Nimbārka and the other like Śaṁkara. Bhāskara reads vā instead of ca. The general context of the sūtra according to the bhāṣyakāras is the discussion of the nature of the jīva.
- 2. Saurabha 2.3.49.
- 3. Ibid, 2.3.19-31.
- 4. Ibid, 2.3.42.
- 5. Samkara is also an ātmavibhutvavādin. But Nimbārka does not seem to be aware of it. For Nimbārka the ātmavibhuvādins are the followers of Kapila (the Sāmkhyas).
- 6. The Śāmkarabhāsya on BS 2.3.50.
- 7. Saurabha 2.3.48.
- 8. Ibid 2.3.28.
- 9. Here he quotes Svet 1.6, 1.9, and 5.6
- 10. For details vide Śribhāsya 2.3.49.
- 11. Śrinivāsa includes the doctrine of Kaṇāda also here.
- 12. The fact that Śrinivāsa does not criticise the Samkarite

- theory of the *pratibimbavāda* does not necessarily mean that he should also be a pre-Śarnkara commentator, because the sole aim of the *Kaustubha* is to explain the *Saurabha*.
- 13. Cf. P.M. **Modi**, A Critique of the Brahmasūtra, Part II 1956, pp. 266-290.
- 14. For example the lack of unanimity among the various commentators on BS 2.2.42-45.
- Cf. Śaṁkara's Brahmasūtrabhāṣya 1.1.4, 1.1.12-19, 1.1.23, 1.1.31, 1.2.23, 1.3.28, 1.4.3, 1.4.14, 2.1.14, 2.1.9, 3.3.33, etc.
 Ğitābhāṣya, 13, 13; Chāndogyabhāṣya 2.23.1, 3.10.10, 7.12.1:

Brhadaranyakabhasya, 2.1.20 etc.

- 16. Brahmasūtrabhāṣya, 1.3.19 asmadīyāśca kecit.... Bṛhadāraṇyakabhāṣya, 2.3.6 aupaniṣadamanyā api kecit... Māṇḍūkya bhāṣya 3.20 kecid upaniṣad vākhyākāro brahmavādino....
- 17. Padmapāda, *Pañcapādika* published with the commentary vivaraṇa of Prakāśātmā, Vizianagaram Sanskrit Series, Benaras, 1891, p. 58.
- 18. Ibid, Vol, II Part I, p. 58, "ity annair api 'svavṛttau varṇitam tathā ca vṛtyantare varṇitam..."

 page 64, "....tatra anyaiḥ vṛttikāraiḥ brahmaśabdasyārthāntaram āśamkhya......vṛttyantare tu śeṣalakṣaṇā vyākhyātā"
- 19. G.V. **Buddhakar**, Is the Advaita of Samkara Buddhim in Disguise, QJMS, Vol XXIV, Bangalore 1933, Nos. 1-4. p. 260.
- 20. S.L. **Pandey**, *Pre-Śamkara Advaita Vedānta*, Allahabad, 1974, p. 88.
- 21. Cf. the respective positions of Bhāmati, Ratnaprabhā, Nyāyanimaya and Prakaṭārthavivaraṇa on the references that Śamkara makes to other vrttikāras as given in footnote 15 above.
- 22. G.V. Buddhakar, 1993, p.260.
- M. Hiriyanna, "Bhartṛprapañca An Old Vedāntin", Proceedings and Transactions of All India Oriental Conference III. Madras. 1924.
- 24. M.T. **Sahasrabuddhe**, "A Survey of the pre-Śamkara Advaita Vedānta" 1968.
- 25. S.L. Pandey, Pre-Samkara Advatta Vedānta, 1974
- 26. Ibid, p. 150.
- 27. Bhāskarabhāṣya, p. 1, CSS ed, Benaras.

- sūtrābhiprāya samvṛtyā svābhiprāyaprakāśanāt vyākhyātam yair idam śāstram vyākhyeyam tan nivṛttaye
- 28. Ibid, 2.2.29:...ye tu bauddha matāvalambino māyāvādinaste'py anena nyāyena sūtrakāreṇai'va niraṣtā veditavyāḥ..."
 Ibid 1.4.25: ...vigītam vicchinna-mūlam mahāyānika bauddhagāthitam māyāvādam vyāvarṇyanto lokān vyāmohayanti.
- 29. For example, the rejection of *māyāvāda* by Bhāskara as pointed out in footnote 28 above.
- 30. *Śribhāṣya* 2.3.20. If *ātman* is taken to be possessed of an allpervading nature indeed, then the departure, etc. would not fit in.
- 31. We have pointed out that for the Saurabhakāra the vibhutvavādin is Kapila. Cf. Saurabha 2.3.49.
- 32. Śrībhāṣya 2.3.21. The absence of the simile of grāmasvāmyanivṛtti in Śrībhāṣya may perhaps show that this simile was not very popular in the Bodhāyana tradition.
- 33. BS2.3.24 avasthitivaiśeṣyād iticen nābhyupagamād hṛdi hi. This sūtra both raises an objection and answers it. The objection is that the two cases of the sandal ointment and the soul are not parallel because the former has a specialized abode while the soul has no such specialization. The answer is that the scriptures declare the heart to be the abode of the soul within the body.
- 34. For example, the Ntrnayasāgara edition.
- 35. Perhaps the scribes of the manuscript might have made a mistake because guṇād va'lokavat can equally be read as guṇādvā lokavat.
- 36. Śāmkarabhāṣya2.3.26-27. They break the sūtra as vyatireko gandhavat and tathā ca darśayati.
- 37. V.S. Ghate. "The Vedanta", 1926, p. 94.
- 38. Cf. Saurabha 2.3.28.
- 39. Śāmkarabhāṣya 2.3.29: ...The soul is not of atomic size, since scripture does not declare it to have had an origin. On the contrary, as scripture speaks of the highest Brahman entering into the element and teaches that it is their self, the soul is nothing else but the highest Brahman. And if the soul is highest Brahman it must be of the same extent as Brahman. Now scripture states Brahman to be all-pervading. Therefore the soul also is all-pervading....Nor again could the soul, if it were of atomic size, experience sensations extending over the whole body. If it be said that is possible owing to the soul's connection with the sense of touch, we

- deny that assertion....Concerning the light emitted from a lamp we have already shown that it is, not a quality, but rather a different kind of substance.... (when not mentioned otherwise, the translation of the Śāmkarabhāṣya on BS is taken from George **Thibaut** 1904).
- 40. *Ibid.*If the intelligence of the soul pervades the whole body, the soul cannot be atomic, for intelligence constitutes the soul's proper nature, just as heat and light constitute that of fire. A separation of the two as quality and that which is qualified does not exist...
- 41. For example, Samkara does not consider sūtra 31 (according to his reading) of this pāda as stating a siddhānta doctrine opposed to what has been considered in the preceding sūtras. There are many other instances where Samkara does not consider the sūtras containing a tu as a reply to a pūrvapaķsa view.
- 42. Ghate, 1926, p.96.
- 43. G. **Thibaut**, The *Vedānta sūtra*, Part I, 1904, Introduction p. LV.
- 44. Ghate, loc cit.
- 45. Ibid, p. 97.
- 46. Sāmkarabhāṣya 2.3.29.
- 47. Śrībhāṣya 2.3.29: vijñānaguṇa sāratvāt ātmano vijñānam iti vyapadeśaḥ vijñānam evāsya sārabhutogunaḥ. yathā prājñaśyānandaḥ sārabhutoguṇa iti prājña ānandaśabdena vyapadiśyate.
- 48. Saurabha 2.3.30: During the waking state there is "the manifestation" of "this", i.e. of knowledge, which is "existent" indeed during the states of deep sleep and so on. Hence, the attribute of knowledge does last so long as the soul itself does, just as in youth there is the manifestation of virility and so on, which are existent indeed during childhood.
- 49. Śāmkarabhāṣya 2.3.31: As in ordinary life virile power and so on, existing potentially only in young children, and being then looked upon as non-existing, become manifest at the time of puberty and do not originate at that time from previous non-existence, because in that case they might originate in eunuchs also so the connection of the soul with buddhi exists potentially merely during deep sleep and the period of general retraction, and again becomes manifest at the time of waking and the time of creation. This explanation is appropriate, because nothing can be assumed to spring up unless from something else. Otherwise we should

have to suppose that effects spring up without causes. That the rising from deep sleep is due to the existence of potential $avidy\bar{a}$, scripture also declares, "Having become merged in the true they know not that they are merged in the true. Whatever these creatures are here, whether a lion or a wolf", etc. ($Ch\bar{a}nd$ VI 9.2.3)...

- 50. Bṛh 2.4.12: na pretya samjñāsti
- 51. Saurabha 2.3.31: sarvagatātmavāde ātmopalabdhyanupalabdhyor bandha mokşayor nityam prasangah syānnitya baddho vā nityamukto vā'tmety anyataraniyamo vā syāt.
- 52. Śaṁkara accepts the soul not only as all-pervasive but also as having knowledge as its essential nature (Cf. Śāmkarabhāṣya 2.3.18). As will be pointed out in the next chapter Śrīnivāsa attacks the cetanabhutātmavibhutvavādin who considers the essential nature of the all-pervading soul as jñānamātra.
- 53. We have pointed out under sūtra 28 above that Śamkara brings up the discussion on buddhi which is not at all demanded by the sūtra. Now we know that he discusses buddhi under the four sūtras in order to explain the present sūtra. Here he avoids the arguments against the sarvagatātmavāda by Nimbārka, but explains it through the theory of pratibimbavāda under sūtra abhāsaḥ eva ca (BS 3.2.50 according to Śamkara's reading). Even there Nimbārka is unaware of the pratibimbavāda of Śamkara.
- 54. Vide our discussion in chapter five (page 141)
- 55. Vide Śribhāṣya 2.3.32.
- 56. Since it would be too voluminous to go into a detailed study of all such instances where Samkara seems to be aware of the doctrinal position of the Saurabhakāra, we are compelled to bypass many of them, especially those instances where Samkara seems to elaborate the vrtti of Nimbarka on the BS. In a number of places Samkara refines the archaism of the Saurabha, corrects his scriptural quotations by placing them at their proper places. In the following references, the numbering of the sutras is as given in the Saurabha. We have already discussed the question of the anutva of the jiva. Another example could be their commentaries on BS 3.3.16 and BS 3.4.39. Samkara brings better coherence and order by even dividing the sūtras, for example, sūtra 3.3.35. In some instances Samkara refines the sūtras themselves (for example 3.3.37). Nimbarka seems to be unaware of these facts.

There are other instances where Samkara after giving his

own special interpretation of the *sūtras*, incorporates as an alternative what Nimbārka has said. For example, Śamkara incorporates into 2.2.40 what Nimbārka has stated in *Saurabha* 2.2.38-39. There are also instances where Śamkara incorporates into a previous *sūtra* what *Saurabha* says later and reserves this later *sūtra* to treat some other special scriptural texts and problems. For example in 3.3.13, Śamkara adds what Nimbārka has to say at 3.3.14 and reserves *sūtra* 3.3.14 to take up the *Katḥa* passage. All these may well point out that Śamkara appears to reread and readjust the *Saurabha*.

Nimbārka gives due importance to Karma and jñāna for a mumukṣu. There are many references to Mīmāmsa sūtras and examples from Mīmāmsa in the Saurabha. That seems to be the reason why Śamkara makes an appeal to the pūrvamīmāmsā and points out that one and the same passage cannot refer to more than one thing as understood by Nimbārka in the Saurabha 1.1.32.

Vide Śāmkarabhāśya on the above sūtras.

- 57. i.e. sūtras seven to sixteen according to Śamkara.
- 58. i.e. sūtras 4.3.7-11.
- 59. This division of the sūtras by Śaṁkara goes against the general method adopted by the Brahmasūtrakāra, who normally gives the view of the pūrvapakṣin first and then presents the doctrine of the siddhāntin. Interestingly, Śaṁkara is aware that he is going against the normal method. See his bhāsya on BS 4.3.14.
- 60: Saurabha. 3.6-10.
- 61. Ibid 4.3.11-15.
- 62. V.S. Ghate, 1960, p. 171.
- 63. Śāmkarabhāṣya 4.3.14: "....kecit punaḥ pūrvāṇi pūrvapakṣa sūtrāṇi bhavanty-uttarāṇi siddhānta sūtrāṇi ity etām vyavasthām anurudhyamānāḥ para visayā eva gati śrutiḥ pratiṣṭhāpayanti.
- 64. For example BS 2.2.5-9, BS 3.2.4-6. Here the order of the sūtras among themselves, as given by Rāmānuja differs from the order of these sūtras given by other bhāṣyakāras.
- 65. This is sūtra 4.3.15 according to Śamkara. He reads the sūtra as apratikālambanān nayatīti Bādarāyaṇa ubhayathā'doṣāt tat kratuśca.
- 66. Ghate, 1960, pp. 171-173.
- 67. Śāmkarabhāṣya 4.3.14: "nahi gatam eva gamyate anyo hyanyad gacchatīti prasiddham loke....

Later on Śamkara points out that the going of the soul to Brahman is based on three wrong notions about the individual soul. These are: firstly—the individual soul is a part of Brahman, secondly—, the individual soul is an effect of Brahman and thirdly, the individual soul is different from Brahman. Śamkara rejects all these as wrong hypotheses. Since Nimbārka accepts that the jīva is a part of Brahman and is an effect of Brahman, he must reply to the objections raised by Śamkara if he were a post-Śamkara vedāntin. At any rate Nimbārka is completely unaware of the objections raised by Śamkara.

68. Ibid, "tad evam parabrahmavido gantavyādi vijnānasya bādhitatvān nā kathamcana gatir upapādayitum śakyā saguņavidyāviṣayā bhaviṣyanti..."

According to Samkara all the scriptural texts speaking of Brahman as possessing of manifold powers and qualifications such as the originator of the universe etc, have only a secondary purport and are utlimately meant to teach the absolute oneness of Brahman. On the basis of various scriptural texts (e.g. Chānd 5.3.24, 4.10.5, 4.15.3, 7.1.1. 7.6.5, Bṛh 4.4.6, Kauṣ 1.1., Tait 2.1., Praśna 5.2 etc.) he attempts to establish the existence of a two-fold knowledge; a higher and a lower knowledge, corresponding to higher and lower Brahman. According to him the soul's going falls within the sphere of lower knowledge and applies to the lower Brahman only.

- 69. See Śāmkarabhāsya 4.3.14.
- 70. Saurabha, 1.1.1.
- 71. Śāmkarabhāṣya, 1.1.1. : ...nityānitya vastuvivekaḥ ihāmutraphalabhogavirāgaḥ śamadamādi sādhana sampat, mumukṣatvam ca....
- 72. Vide for details Kaustubha, 4.1.16, 3.4.32-35.
- 73. Vide for details Saurabha, 4.1.15 and Kaustubha, 4.1.15.
- 74. Saurabha, 4.1.19: vidvān ārabdhakārye tu sukrtaduskrte bhogena kṣapayitvā brahma sampadyate.
- 75. Saurabha, 3.3.27.
- 76. Surprisingly Śrīnivāsa in his Kaustubha 3.3.27 seems to be influenced by the jñāna theory of Śamkara. It appears that he reinterprets the doctrine of Nimbārka in the light of Śamkara. His using the term jñāni in the beginning of his bhāṣya on the sūtra here amply supports it. Incidentally, it may be noted that Śamkara uses the terms jñāni only towards the end of his bhāṣya on this sūtra. Śrīnivāsa's

comments in *Kaustubha* 4.1.19 also points to his awareness of Śaṁkara's attack on Nimbārka. Therefore he clarified the doctrine of Nimbārka better here. (*Vide Kaustubha* 4.1.19).

- 77. Vide infra. p. 282.
- 78. Saurabha, 4.4.15.
- 79. Saurabha, 1.3.42, 4.4.17-21.
- 80. Ibid, 4.4.1.
- 81. Sāmkarabhaṣya, 1.4.21, 3.4.8.
- 82. Saurabha, 4.4.1.
- 83. Saurabha, 4.4.4.
- 84. BS 3.2.27. ubhayavyapadeśāt tv ahikuṇḍalavat.
- 85. BS 3.2.28. prakāśāśrayavad va tejastvāt.
- 86. Vide infra. p. 104.
- 87. Saurabha, 3.2.28.
- 88. Vide infra. p. 298.
- 89. By pūrvavat Śamkara understands BS 3.2.25 while Nimbārka understands it as referring to BS 2.1.25 and Rāmānuja as referring to BS 2.3.43 and 46.
- 90. Śāmkarabhāṣya 3.2.29.
- 91. BS 3.2.25 prakāśādi vaccāvaises yam prakāsasca karmaņya' bhyāsāt.
- 92. According to Rāmānuja these form BS 3.2.26, 3.2.27 and 3.2.28 respectively instead of BS 3.2.27, 3.2.28 & 3.2.29 as in Nimbārka.
- 93. Vide Śribhāṣya, 3.2.28.
- 94. i.e. sūtra 1.1.26 according to Nimbārka.
- 95. This is sūtra 2.3.40 according to Śamkara.
- 96. V.S. Ghate, 1926, p. 95.
- 97. Vide their respective commentaries on sūtra 3.2.11 and Saurabha 3.2.27-28.
- 98. Bhāskarabhāṣya, 3.2.3.
- 99. Vide Sribhāṣya, 3.2.3.
- 100. Chānd 6.8. 6 : asya somya puruṣasya prayato vānmanasi sampadyate manaḥ prāne prānastejasi tejaḥ parasyām devatāyām.
- 101. Vide footnote 106 infra.
- 102. Śāmkarabhāṣya 4.2.1.
 -the pūrvapakṣin maintains that speech itself is merged in

the mind...to this we reply that only the function of speech is merged in the mind. But how can this interpretation be maintained, considering that the teacher (in the $s\bar{u}tra$) expressly says 'speech in the mind'? — True, we reply, but later on he says "There is non-division, according to scriptural statement ($s\bar{u}tra$ 16), and we therefore conclude that what is meant in the present $s\bar{u}tra$ is merely cessation of the function of speech. For if the intention were the absorption of the thing (i.e. the organ of speech) itself, there would be "non-division" in all cases, and for what reason then should "non-division" be specially stated in another case (i.e. in the case of which $s\bar{u}tra$ 16 treats)? The meaning therefore is that the different functions are retracted and that while the function of the mind continues to go on the function of speech is retracted first....

- 103. Ibid, "Śabdo'py asmin pakṣe'vakalpate, vṛttivṛttimator abhedopacārād ity arthaḥ.
- 104. Saurabha 4.2.1 ...vāg indriye uparate'pi manaḥ pravṛtti darśanāt...
- 105. Cf. Kaustubha, 4.2.1.
- 106. It seems that the adjectival phrase <code>samyogarupa</code> found in <code>Saurabha</code> 4.2.1 is an interpolation, because that phrase sounds <code>awkward</code> when we take the entire <code>Saurabha</code> on this <code>pāda</code>. Nimbārka consistently insists on a literal interpretation of the <code>sūtra</code> in this <code>pāda</code>. Therefore the original position of Nimbārka could have been <code>vāgindriyasya</code> manasi <code>sampattir</code> <code>ucyate</code> instead of the present reading <code>vāgindriyasya</code> manasi <code>samyogarupa</code> <code>sampattir</code> <code>ucyate</code>. Śrīnivāsa is aware of the argument of Śamkara that the mind is not the material cause of speech. Therefore the addition of <code>samyogarupa</code> has a meaning in the <code>Kaustubha</code>. We have already pointed out that the tendency for interpolation has played havoc with the doctrine of the <code>pūrvācāryas</code> in the Nimbarka school.
- 107. Bhāskara, one of the *bhedābhedavādins*, as usual throws his lot with Śamkara throughout this *pāda*, thereby clearly showing the influence Śamkara has on him.
- 108. Śribhāṣya 4.2.1. ...manaso vākprakṛti tvabhāvāt tatra vāksvarūpa sampatty asambhavāt. vāgādivṛttinām mano'dhinatvena vṛtti sampatti śrutiḥ kathamcid upapadyate iti evam prāpte....
- Ibid, 4.2.1. na hi tadānim vrtty uparame vāgindriyam paramānāntarenopalabhyate yena vrttimātram sampadyate ity ucyeta.

- 110. Saurabha 4.2.3 "tacca prāṇena samyujyate" manaḥ prāṇa (Chānd 6.8.6) ity uttara śabdāt.
- 111. Samkarabhāsya 4.2.3.
- 112. Ibid, tad apy āgṛhītabāhyedriya vṛttiḥ mano vṛttidvāreṇaiva prāṇe praliyate ity uttarād vākyād avagantavyam.
- 113. Śribhāsya 4.2.3.
- 114. Saurabha 4.2.4. The prāṇa is united with the jīva, why? On account of the texts indicating 'its approach' viz. 'Thus verily, do all the prāṇas approach together to the jīva at the time of death (Bṛh 4.3.38). He going out, the prāṇa goes out after him' (Bṛh 4.4.2) 'Or, who staying should I stay' (Praśna 6.3). The prāṇa, connected with the jīva is united with fire—this is the resultant meaning.
- 115. asya saumya puruṣasya prayato' vāň manasi sampadyate' manaḥ prāṇe prāṇas tejasi tejaḥ parasyām devatāyām. (Chānd 6.8.6).
 - Nimbārka treats elaborately only the merging of the *prāṇa* in the soul, and all of a sudden, jumps to the conclusion that the *prāṇa* connected with the soul, is united with fire: "this is the *phalito'rthaḥ*" (the resultant meaning) such a conclusion pre-supposes certain detailed discussion which is not found in the available *Saurabha*. Perhaps that is a trait of his style.
- 116. Nimbārka accepts the merging of the *prāṇa* in the *jīva*, as demanded by the *sūtra*. Śamkara as usual accepts the merging of the function of *prāṇa* in the *jīva*. Besides, Nimbārka seems to be unaware of the reasons advanced by Śamkara for the merging of the functions only.
- 117. Śāmkarabhāsya 4.2.4.
- 118. Rāmānuja might have derived this simile perhaps from a similar one concerning one's travelling from Srughna to Pāṭaliputra via Mathura, given by Śamkara in the following sūtra.
- 119. It is unlikely that such a mention of Mathura would be left out by a post-Samkara Śrīnivāsa if the Nimbārka school of vedānta had an earlier connection with Mathura and Rādhākṛṣṇa cult.
- 120. Saurabha 4.2.12...There is no such contradiction, since that is a denial of the departure of the sense organs "from the embodied soul" the topic of discussion is clear from the reading "of some", viz. "from him the vital-breaths do not depart" (Sat. Br. 14.7.2,8). scripture denies their departure from that alone.

- 121. The *Bṛh* 4.4.6 reading *tasya* seem to cause misunderstanding. Therefore Nimbārka points out that *Śat. Br* 14.7.2.8 reads *tasmāt* thereby removing all ambiguity. That these variations belong to the *Kāṇva* and the *Mādhyandina* recensions respectively is made clear by the *Śrībhāṣya*.
- 122. These are sūtras 12-13 according to the Saurabha.
- 123. Śāṁkarabhāsya 4.2.12.
- 124. i.e. sūtra 4.2.13 according to Śamkara, which reads "spaṣṭo hyekesām."
- 125. For example Brh 3.2.11, 4.4.2, 4.4.6 etc.
- 126. Śāmkarabhāṣya 4.2.13: ...tatsāmānyāt na tasmāt prāṇā utkrāmanty atraiva samavanīyante'ity atrāpy abhedopacāreṇa dehāpādānasyaivotkramaṇasya pratiṣedhah....
- 127. Ibid...na ca brahmavidah sarvagata brahmātmabhūtasya prakṣiṇakāmakarmaṇa utkrāntir gatir vā upapadyate, nimittābhāvāt. "atra brahma samaśnute" iti caivaṃjāti yakāḥ śrutayo gaty utkrāntyor abhāvam sūcayanti.
- 128. Kaustubha 4.2.12. It is one of those few instances where Śrinivāsa clearly rejects the doctrine of Śamkara, without naming him.
- Kaustubha 4.2.13 ... By the texts: By that light, this soul goes 129. out (Brh 4.4.2), "He assumes another newer and a more auspicious form" (Brh 4.4.4) and so on, it is suggested that during the state of transmigratory existence, the sense organs of the embodied soul depart in order that there may be the origin of a new body— and it is this that is denied here. Further, it is suggested that at the time of the knower's departure from the final body, set up so long by the work the effects of which have already begun, he is separated from the sense organs - and this too is denied. The sense is that these sense organs accompany him as he proceeds through the path of gods, and are not separated from him prior to his attaining Brahman. In the reading "of some" branches, viz. "From him the sense organs do not depart (Sat Br 14.7.2.8), there is an explicit denial of the departure of the sense organs from the embodied soul, mentioned as the topic of discussion thus "He who is without desire, who is free from desire, who has attained his desire" (Sat. Br 14.7.2.8) and indicated as an ablative by the fifth case ending. (Translation of the Kaustubha texts are from Roma Bose 1940 and 1941).
- 130. Vide Śribhāṣya 4.2.12.

Chapter 5

- 1. Vide the various guruparamparās such as the ones given in Strotraratnāvalī (pp. 127-136), Laghustavāvali (pp. 9-11) and Śrīnimbārkas tan matañ ca (pp. 6-7) Vide supra footnote 15, chapter two.
- 2. AC, p. 114.
 dharmabhṛṭām variṣṭasya yudhiṣṭarasya bhūbhṛṭaḥ
 rājyād uttarakāle' bhud vajranābho nṛpottamaḥ
 śaśāsāsau mahābhāgo mathurāmaṇḍale mahīm
 tadā Śrīnivāsācāryo gurūṇām śaraṇam gataḥ!
 - A.P. **Bhattacharya** (1966, p. 96) considers that Vajranābha is the founder of the kingdom of Śurasena in the sixth century BC.
- 3. AC p. 96 ff. It is said that when Ācāryapāda came to the hermitage of Nimbārka on a world-conquering mission, Nimbārka performed a miracle by showing the arka (sun) above nimba tree in order to enable the guest to have his meals in spite of being late at night. For, the sages are not allowed to eat anything after the sun set. (Vide a similar story in chapter two above).
- 4. AC, p. 143.
- 5. N.D. Sharma, 1978, pp. 25-26, Vide also NUS, p. 81.
- 6. A.P. Bhattacharya, 1966, pp. 98-100.
- 7. Vrajavallabha, 1974, p. 79.
- 8. Kaustubha 2.2.28.
- 9. Chawkhamba vidyābhavan ed., Varanasi, 1964, p. 67.
- ed. Swami **Dvarikadasa Shastri**, Bauddha Bharati Series 3,
 Varanasi 1968, p. 205.
- 11. It is said that Dharmakirti is called *Viprabhikṣu* because originally he was a Brahman but later became a Buddhist monk. On that account he was popularly called *Viprabhikṣu*.
- 12. **Kathiyababa**, (1972, pp. 109-112) defends the pre-Dharmakīrti days of Śrīnivāsa on the ground that these texts in the *Vedāntakaustubha* of Śrīnivāsa are interpolations from the *Vedāntakaustubhaprabhā* of Keśavakāśmirin. Thereby he also acknowledges that in the past, some zealous scribes in the Sect have manipulated the original writings of the *ācāryas*. Since there is a general acceptance in the school of Nimbārka that the above text is that of Śrīnivāsa, we do not go into a detailed examination of the position of **Kathiyababa**. Besides, even if the text in question is an

interpolation in the *Vēdantakaustubha*, we have ample evidence to prove the post-Śaṁkara nature of the *Vedāntakaustubha*.

- 13. A.P. Bhattacharya, 1966, pp. 78-79.
- 14. Ibid, pp. 81-82.
- 15. Saurabha 1.3.8, Vide supra, chapter one. A later disciple can also consider himself as led by the command of the founder guru to undertake any good deeds. He also does the meritorious deeds for the prasāda of the founder guru.
- 16. A.P. Bhattacharya, 1966, pp. 79-80.
- 17. V.S. Ghate, 1926, p. 79.
- 18. An objection is already contained in the sūtra itself which reads bhoktāpatter avibhāgaś cet syāllokavat.
- Kaustubha 2.1.13. ... "Moreover, there will not be any dis-19. tinction between the enjoyer and the controller, because the group of enjoyers being non-different from the controller, the enjoyer will become the controller, and the controller, the supreme soul, will become the enjoyer. In ordinary life, to begin with, the distinction between the enjoyer and the object enjoyed is well known, thus "The individual soul is the enjoyer, the body and the rest are the objects enjoyed" and in the Veda too, thus "Eats the sweet berry" (Mundaka 3.1.1, Svet 4.6). Similarly the distinction between the enjoyer and the controller, too, is well known in ordinary life as is evident from the conduct of the good who always regard their pleasures and pains as dependent on the Lord; and in the Veda too, thus: "He alone makes one do good deeds" (Kaus 3.8). "The soul which is without the Lord is bound, because of being an enjoyer" (Svet 1.8) and so on. Thus "on account of becoming an enjoyer, there is non-distinction" and hence the doctrine of the causality of Brahman cannot be accepted"....
- 20. Śāmkarabhāṣya 2.1.13..."The distinction of enjoyers and objects of enjoyment is well known from ordinary experience the enjoyers being intelligent, embodied souls, while sound and the like are the objects of enjoyment. Devadatta, for instance is an enjoyer, the dish (which he eats) an object of enjoyment. The distinction of the two would be reduced to non-existence if the enjoyer passed over into the object of enjoyment, and vice versa. Now this passing over of one thing into another world actually results from the doctrine of the world being non-different from Brahman. But the sublation of a well-established distinction is objectionable,

not only with regard to the present time when that distinction is observed to exist, but also with regard to the past and the future, for which it is inferred. The doctrine of Brahman's causality must therefore be abandoned, as it would lead to the sublation of the well-established distinction of enjoyers and objects of enjoyment.

- 21. Kaustubha 2.1.13 ... "The author states the correct conclusion in the words "It may be, as in ordinary life". That is, on our view, too, there may, indeed, be a distinction between the enjoyer and the object enjoyed, as well as between the enjoyer and the controller, "as in ordinary life". In ordinary life, although pots, dishes and the rest, having the lump of clay as their material cause; bracelets, earrings and the rest, having gold as their material cause, foams, waves and the rest, having the sea as their material cause; and leaves, fruits and the rest, having the tree as their material cause; are all non-different from their respective causes, there is still a mutual distinction amongst the particular effects themselves. In exactly the same manner, there may be a mutual distinction between the enjoyer and the object enjoyed, although they are non-different from Brahman, having Brahman as their material cause. Similarly, inspite of their non-distinction there may still be a distinction between the enjoyer and the controller, just as pots, dishes and the rest, though by nature non-different from the clay, as having no existence and activity apart from the clay, are yet by nature different, too, from the clay possessing as they do their own particular attributes which the clay lacks. The same should be known to be the case with the gold and bracelets and the rest too. Likewise, there is a natural relation of difference - non-difference between Brahman and the individual soul. There is, indeed, no inconsistency here. Hence it is established that the doctrine of the causality of Brahman is not open to the above objections (Italics mine)."
- 22. Rāmānuja seems to be referring to Nimbārka when he says: yattu parair brahmakāraṇavāde bhoktṛbhogyavibhāgābhāvaṁ sañkya samudraphenatraṇgadṛṣṭāntena vibhāgapratipādanaparaṁ sūtraṁ vyākhyātaṁ tadayuktam.

He gives the reason for rejecting such an interpreation when he states: antarbhāvitaśaktyavidyopādhikād brahmaṇaḥ sṛṣṭim abhyupagacchatām, evam ākṣepa parihārayor asaṅgatatvāt. Here Rāmānuja seems to reject the interpretation of the sūtra by Nimbārka, Śaṅkara and Bhāskara. For, Nimbārka accepts the creation of the world from

Brahman by svāsādhāraṇaśaktimattvāt (Saurabha 2.1.23). It is well known that Śaṁkara considers the creation to be due to avidyā and Bhāskara as due to upādhi. Thus this reference of Rāmānuja points out the priority of Nimbārka over Rāmānuja.

Significant also is the fact that Rāmānuja speaks of these other philosophers after presenting the view of the author of the *Dramiḍabhāṣya*, thereby making a clear distinction between the philosophy of Dramiḍācārya and that of Nimbārka. On this count, it is not possible to accept the position of Lalita Krishna **Goswami** that Nimbārka and Dramiḍācārya are one and the same historical person. (Cf. L.K **Goswami** 1972, Allahabad, p. 60 ff.)

- Sāmkarabhāsya 2.1.13 ..."To the preceding objection we 23. reply. It may exist as in ordinary experience. Even on our philosophic view the distinction may exist, as ordinary experience furnishes us with analogous instances. We see, for instance, that waves, foam, bubbles and other modifications of the sea, although they really are not different from the sea-water, exist, sometimes in the state of mutual separation, sometimes in the state of conjunction, etc. From the fact of their being non-different from the sea-water, it does not follow that they pass over into each other, and, again, although they do not pass over into each other, still they are not different from the sea. So it is in the case under discussion also. The enjoyers and the objects of enjoyment do not pass over into each other, and yet they are not different from the highest Brahman. And although the enjoyer is not really an effect of Brahman, since the unmodified created himself, in so far as he enters into the effect, is called the enjoyer (according to the passage "Having created he entered into it" (Tait. Up. 2.6). Still after Brahman has entered into its effects it passes into a state of distinction, in consequence of the effect acting as a limiting adjunct just as the universal ether is divided by its contact with jars and other limiting adjuncts. The conclusion is, that the distinction of enjoyer and objects of enjoyment is possible, although both are non-different from Brahman, their highest cause, as the analogous instance of the sea and its waves demonstrates."
- 24. Vide Śāmkarabhāsya, 2.1.14.
- 25. BS, 2.1.14-19 according to the reading of Nimbarka. Samkara divides the sūtra 17 into two.

- 26. Kaustubha 2.1.14 "In the first chapter, Brahman has been described many times as different from the sentient and the non-sentient, in order that there may be a proper discrimination between the peculiar natures of these three realities respectively. Here, on the other hand, the nondifference of the world, the effect, from Brahman the cause, resulting from the absence of separate existence, activity and the rest (on the part of the former) has been established under the aphorism: If it be objected that (in that case the effect must be) non-existent (we replay) no, on account of there being a negation merely" (BS, 2.1.7) and so on. Now, with a view to confirming the stated conclusion, the author is refuting the view of the Vaisesikas who hold that the effect is non-different from the cause, but is something which originates (i.e. is an absolutely new creation).
- 27. *Ibid.* ... "The compound (tad ananyatvam) is to be explained as follows. There is non-difference between the two, viz. the cause and the effect, or, there is non-difference of that, viz. the world, the effect, from Brahman, the cause, or there is non-difference of the effect from that, viz. the cause. That is the effect, which is of the form of the sentient and the non-sentient, which is limited, has many names and forms, and is dependent, is non-different from Brahman, the supreme cause, possessing the sentient and the non-sentient as his powers, unlimited, denoted by words like "one", "without a second" and so on, capable of abiding voluntarily in the causal state and in the effected states, and prior to the entire universe..."
- 28. *Ibid*, "Among these, the meaning of the text beginning with the world "beginning" (ārambhaṇa) is as follows:

 The Chāndogyas, having made an initial statement to the

effect that through the knowledge of the material cause there arises the knowledge of all the effects, in the passage: "Whereby the unheard becomes heard, the unthought thought, the unknown known" (Chānd 6.1.3), state a parallel instance to establish it, in the passage: "Just as, my dear, through one lump of clay, everything made of clay may be known — the effect, having its beginning in speech is a name, the reality is just the clay" (Chānd 6.1.4). That is, just as "through one lump of clay" being known as clay "everything made of clay" i.e. the group of the evolutes of clay, may be known, since they are all made of clay; — for such a group of evolutes 'has its beginning in speech' i.e. meaning, and "name" i.e. word. The function of speech rests on these two, viz. meaning and word, e.g. we say: Fetch water by the pot.

Hence, "the truth" is that the evolute, characterized by having a broad bottom and resembling the shape of a belly, having the name "pot", and conducive to the function of fetching water and so on, is "just clay". That is, the view that the effect is different from the cause, on account of the difference of individuality and conception, is incorrect, for it is not possible to attribute the individuality or the conception of a pot to the wind and the rest which are different from clay. If the effect is to originate from the non-existent simply, then that would lead to the origin of everything everywhere, as well as to the futility of the activity of the agent. So desist from further arguments."

- 29. Under sūtra 1.3.7. Śamkara says that the distinction between the individual soul and Brahman is no more real than that between the ether within a pot and the universal ether.
- 30. Under the same sūtra 2.1.13 Śaṁkara too has accepted such an interpretation from a practical point of view.
- 31. Cf. Roma Bose, 1940, p. 287.
- 32. Śrīnivāsa brings again the example of "the tree and leaves" under sūtra 2.1.22, to show that there is no absolute identity between the jīva (the effect) and Brahman (the cause). According to him, just as the leaf, though non-different from the tree, is yet not the tree, so is the case with the jīva and Brahman. Such a contention is defective because the dṛṣṭānta shows only a physical connection, not a metaphysical relation.
- 33. An alternative reading of the text is "yadūrdhvam gārgi divo yadadhastāt pṛthivyāḥ ye cobhe dhyāvāpṛthiyor yadantarakṣaṁ yad bhūtaṁ yadbhaviṣyac ca. (Vide Vrindavana ed. of the Kaustubha, p. 84).
- 34. Bhāskara as it is well known accepts most of what Samkara has expanded throughout his *bhāsya*. Therefore, he could be called a "non-believing follower".
- 35. For example, the first of the two interpretations of Śrīnivāsa on BS 1.1.3 (Śāstrayonitvāt) agrees with the only interpretation of the sūtra by Nimbārka and with the second interpretation of the same sūtra by Śamkara, while Śrīnivāsa's second interpretation agrees with the first interpretation of Śamkara. Again, the second interpretation of BS, 1.4.2 sūkṣamam tu tad ārhatvāt, by Śrīnivāsa appears to be a summary of what Śamkara has given in his bhāṣya on the same sūtra. In the same way, the second interpretation of the sūtra 2.1.7 asad iti cen na pratiṣedhamātratvāt seems to be influenced by Śamkara's interpretation of the sūtra.

Similarly the first interpretation given by Śrīnivāsa on BS, 2.2.4 vyatirekānavasthites ca na pekṣatvāt is similar to the interpretation of Śamkara.

36. We may point out that *bhāṣya* of Śrīnivāsa on the following sūtras, among others, seems to be influenced by Śaṁkara.

 1.1.19,20,26
 2.4.16,17
 3.4.10-12,29-31

 1.2.5,22
 3.1.1,4,5,13,20,24,25
 4.2.1,4,12

 2.1.7,13,22
 3.2.7,10,11,18,32,37
 4.3.3

 2.2.4,21.
 3.3.1,10,21,23,26,49,51,55,58,59

 2.3.46,47

- 37. Saurabha, 3.2.19: Sūryād ambu dūrastham gṛhyate, tadvad amsinaḥ sakāśāt sthānasyāgrahaṇād dṛṣṭāntavaiṣamyam iti.
- 38. Cf. Samkarabhāsya, 3.2.19.
- 39. Saurabha, 3.2.20
- 40. BS, 3.4.32 : vihitatvāc cāsramakarmāpi

BS, 3.4.33: sahakāritvena ca

BS, 3.4.34 : sarvathāpi ta evobhaya lingāt BS, 3.4.35 : anabhibhavam ca darśayati

- 41. Both may be indebted to the Śabarabhāṣya on the pūrvamīmāmsā sūtra 4.3.5 for the example of khādira wood.
- 42. Such influence of Śamkara on Śrīnivāsa is seen elsewhere also in his commentary. For example, in sūtra 1.3.2 Śrīnivāsa considers the sūtra as referring to Mundaka 2.2.8 and 3.2.8 as referred to by Śamkara rather than Mundaka 3.1.13 as referred to by Nimbārka. The reason perhaps may be that the scriptural texts that Śamkara quotes are better suited to explain the sūtra.

It must also be mentioned in this context that Śrīnivāsa seems to be influenced by Śamkara in the interpretation of BS 3.2.9: sa eva tu karmānusmrtiśabda vidhibhyaḥ. Nimbārka interprets the compound as (i) karmānusmrti (remembrance of works) (ii) śabda (text) and (iii) vidhi (injunction) while Śrīnivāsa follows the example of Śamkara and breaks the first compound as (i) karma (ii) anusmrti, followed by (iii) śabda and (iv) vidhi.

43. BS 3.4.40. tadbhūtasya tu nātad bhāvo jaiminer api niyamāt tadrūpābhāvebhyaḥ. Samkara reads the sūtra slightly different, viz. niyamātad rūpabhāvebhyah.

BS, 3.4.41: na cādhikārikam api patanānumānāt tadayogāt. BS, 3.4.43 bahis tūbhayathā'pi smṛter ācārāc ca. Śaṁkara takes the sūtra as an adhikaraṇa by itself.

- 44. Saurabha 1.2.11 "the two souls, entered into the cave, should be known to be two sentient beings, viz. the jīva and the Paramātman. Why? Because that is seen; i.e. because it is found that this section designates the entering of these two alone of the Supreme Soul in the passage (Kaṭha 2.12)and of the individual soul in the passage (Kaṭha 4.7).....
- 45. Śāmkarabhāṣya, 1.2.11 ...tatra samśayaḥ..kim iha buddhijīvau nirdiṣṭau uta jīvaparamātmānau iti.
- 46. Kaustubha, 1.2.11 ...tatra samsayah kim iha buddhijivau guhām previstav iti nirddhistam uta jiva paramātmānav iti.
- 47. Śāmkarabhāṣya, 1.2.11 ...pibantau'iti ca dvivacanena dvayoḥ pānam darśayati śrutiḥ ato buddhikṣetrajñapakṣastāvan na sambhavati.
- 48. Kaustubha, 1.2.11 guhām hṛḍayalakṣaṇām praviṣṭau ātmānau hi cetanau eva.
- 49. Śāmkarabhāṣya, 1.2.11 chatrino gacchantīty ekenāpi chatriṇā bahūnāṁ chatritvopacāradarśanāt. evam ekenāpi pibatā dvau pibantāv ucyete.
- 50. Ibid, yadvā jīvas thāvat pibati, īsvaras tu pāyayati.
- 51. Kaustubha, 1.2.11.
- 52. Śāṁkarabhāṣya, 1.2.11.
- 53. Kaustubha 1.2.11. The statement of Śrīnivāsa "asya gordvitīyo' nveṣṭavya: ity ukte gaur evānviṣyate nāśvo na gardabha'iti mahābhāṣye sthitam" seems to be a direct reference to Patañjali's Mahābhāṣya on Pāṇini 1.3.19. Therefore Śrīnivāsa cannot at all be assigned to a pre-Patañjali times as claimed by the traditionalists.
- 54. For instance in Kaustubha, 2.1.22, 2.2.4 and 3.4.35.
- 55. For instance in Kaustubha, 4.2.4, 3.3.49.
- 56. For instance in Kaustubha, 3.4.43.
- 57. See chapter four above.
- 58. For example, the defence he makes for the reality of created world in *Kaustubha* 3.2.22.
- 59. BS 2.3.31. nityopalabdhyanupalabdhiprasango'nyatara niyamo vā nyathā.
- 60. See chapter six for Nimbārka's criticism of the Sāmkhya System.
- 61. Bhāskarabhāṣya, 2.3.32.
- 62. Ibid, 2.3.29.
- 63. Kaustubha 2.3.31.

"This aphorism is meant for indicating the defects in the view of those who maintain the all-pervasiveness of the soul which is consciousness. 'Otherwise' i.e. on any view other than our view, viz. that the soul is possessed of the essential attributes of being a knower, knowledge by nature and atomic in size i.e. on the doctrine that the soul is consciousness merely and all-pervading, there must be the consequence of eternal perception and non-perception. On account of the all-pervading soul being ever unenveloped, there will be perception, on account of the existence of mundane existence, non-perception. In this way, there will result simultaneous bondage and release or restriction with regard to the one or the other" There must be eternal bondage alone on the part of the soul which is consciousness merely and immobile, or there must be salvation alone such a restriction will result

- 64. A.P. Bhattacharya, 1966, p. 74.
- 65. Saurabha, 2.3.31, 2.3.49 f.
- 66. Cf. Bhāskarabhāsya, 3.2.29.
- 67. Śāṁkarabhāṣya, 2.3.18.
- 68. Ibid, 2.3.29. ...parasya ca brahmano vibhutvam āmnātam tasmād vibhurjīvah.
- 69. Kaustubha, 1.1.1. Today this text forms a part of the Daśaśloki. See chapter two for comments on Daśaśloki.
- 70. It must be pointed out, that even if the DS in the present form were available to Srinivasa, he left out those verses that give any importance to Rādhā. It is also significant to note that, although Śrīnivasa identified Brahman with Kṛṣṇa in the Kaustubha 1.1.1, he never makes any mention of Rādhā in the entire Kaustubha. Nor does he advocate Kṛṣṇa-cult as the only means for salvation as propounded in verse 8 of the DS.

Incidentally it may be pointed out that Śrīnivāsa introduces the three stanzas (i.e. stanzas 3,4 and 7 of the extant DS) with the phrase yathāhuḥ, which shows that they are not his own creation, but are borrowed. Perhaps even the author of the DS might also have borrowed these stanzas from some common sources. Anyway the omission of the stanzas connected with Rādhā worship as well as the non-mention of Rādhā in the entire Kaustubha in spite of the occasions to do so, shows that Rādhā might have entered the Nimbārka school only some time after Śrīnivāsa.

71. Brahmavaivarta Purāṇa (Anandāśrama edition, Poona 1935)

- 2.26.70, avasyam eva bhoktavyam kṛtam karma subhāsubham...
- 72. Kaustubha 4.1.13. ...Now, the author shows how on the rise of knowledge all obstructions cease immediately. The text "Just as water does not cling to the lotus-leaf, so no evil deeds cling to one who knows this" (Chānd 4.14.3) declares that there is the non-clinging of the subsequent sins on the part of a knower.... If it be suggested: In accordance with the declaration "A work done, good or bad, must necessarily be experienced" (BVP 26. 70) and so on the consequences of the work done must necessarily be undergone. Hence the non-clinging and destruction of subsequent and prior sins are not justifiable, the scriptural texts of (Chānd 4.14.3.5; 5.24.3; Mundaka 2.2.9) about such non-clinging and destruction simply refer to the cessation of works the consequences of which have already been undergone.
- 73. *Ibid*, ... "On the attainment "of knowledge", ... "the non-clinging and destructions of the subsequent and prior sins" are justifiable.... This designation too cannot be taken to be referring to works the consequences of which have already been undergone since the destruction of such works holds good equally in the case of a non-knower, and since the declaration "A work which is not experienced does not decay even in hundreds of millions of ages. It must be experienced necessarily" (*BVP* 26.70) and so on, refers to the case of the non-knowers, and to works which have begun to produce consequences...."
- 74. H.H. Wilson, 1864, Vol. I, pp. 119-120.
- 75. F.S. **Growse**, too considers the Goswāmins as the authors of the present extant *BVP*. Cf. *Mathura* a district memoir, with numerous illustrations. (North-Western provinces and Audh Government Press 1883, p. 74).
- 76. R.C. Hazra, 1940, pp. 166-167.
- 77. C.M. Brown, 1974, pp. 23-29.
- 78. *Ibid*, p. 25. Cf. also Anand Swarupa **Gupta**, "The apocryphal character of the extant *Brahmavaivarta Purāṇa*", *Purāṇa*, Vol. III, 1961, Varanasi, p. 96.
- 79. *Ibid*, pp. 23-24, Also Edward C. **Sachau**, (Tran.) Alberuni's India, Vol, I, 1910, p. 131.
- 80. R.C. Hazra, 1940, pp. 2-4.
- 81. Ibid, p. 166.
- 82. C.M. Brown, 1974, p. 29.

- 83. According to **Wilson** (Cf. the *Viṣṇu Purāṇa "A system of Hindu Mythology and Tradition*, edited by Fitzedward **Hall**. 5 vols. (Vols VI-X of **Wilson's** work, London, (Trubner and Co.) 1864-1877, Preface, pp. LXV-LXVI) the original content of *BVP* might have been what *Mat P* 53.33-35 describes. It reads as follows (The Purāṇa) which gives an account of the *Rathantarakalpa* (as related) by *Sāvarni* to *Nārada*, joined with a glorification of Kṛṣṇa (Kṛṣṇamahātmya), (and) in which the history of *Brahmavarāha* is repeatedly told, consisting of eighteen thousand (ślokas) is called the *Brahmavaivarta*. Whoever makes a gift of the *Brahmavaivarta Purāṇa* in the month of Māgha, on an auspicious day during the full moon is honoured in *Brahmaloka*.
- 84. In spite of the fact that he is familiar with BVPŚrīnivāsa does not advocate any type of Rādhā worship in the Kaustubha. Perhaps the observation of A.K. **Majumdar** is correct that BVP was re-written by the Goswamins of Gokula in order to extol Rādhā and her worship (Vide supra) which has definitely taken place after the time of Śrīnivāsa.
- 85. BVP. 4.12.18 Ānandāśrama Sanskrit Series (1935) p. 560, line 20.
- 86. BVP 4.129, 81 Ibid, p. 898, line 27.
- 87. BVP 4. 129. 74, Ibid, p. 899, line 2.
- 88. Madhvamukunda, "Parapakṣagirivajra" (Mathura ed.), 1935.
- 89. Kaustubha, 1.1.1. "atha tu tadājā ayā tad uktavartamanā tad anugrahakāmena tacchisyena mayā..."
- 90. We have pointed out earlier that neither the AC nor the various guruparamparās can be taken as historical or chronological records. For example, according to the AC and the various guruparamparās the immediate disciple of Śrīnivāsa is Viśvācārya (Cf. AC, p. 143). But Puruṣottama, the author of the Vedāntaratnamanjūṣā, who is considered to be the disciple of Viśvācārya, makes obeisance, not to Viśvācārya, but to Śrīnivāsa as is evident from the following mangalapātḥa of the Manjūṣā.

yoḥ brahmeśasurarṣivanditapado vedāntavedyo haris tam vande manasā girā ca śirasā śrīśrīnivāsam gurum. kantḥe yasc cacāsti kaustubhamaṇirvedānta tatvātmako bhakteḥ śrīrhṛdayeśaraṇyam agateḥ kāruṇyasiṇdhum mudā.

He also refers to Śrīnivāsa as his *guru* in the concluding verse of the same $Ma\eta j \bar{u} s \bar{a}$ (p. 148). He refers to Śrīnivāsa again and again in the $Ma\eta j \bar{u} s \bar{a}$ (for example pp. 127-134 etc.) Similarly according to the *guruparamparās* and AC, the *guru*

of Keśavakāsmīribhaṭṭa is Gāngalabhaṭṭa (Cf. also the mangalapāṭha of TP), but Keśavakāsmīri in his bhāṣya on Brahmasūtras called "Vedāntakaustubhaprabhā" makes obeisance, not to Gāngalabhaṭṭa, but to Mukunda, which shows that either the author of TP is a different Keśavakāsmīribhaṭṭa from the author of the Vedāntakaustubhaprabhā, or the author of AC and the Guruparamparās were not interested in historical or chronological facts.

- 91. Cf. Saurabha 1.3.8. See also the discussion on this claim of Nimbārka in chapter one.
- 92. It must be pointed out that ācāryas belonging to different traditions are also claimed by some later scholars of Nimbārka school as belonging to the Nimbārka tradition. For example the list of the guruparamparās given by Kisoridasa in his Śrīnimbārkas stan mataāca (1922, pp. 6-7) contains the name of Bhāskarācārya, the aupādhika bhedābhedavādin, as the second successor of Nimbārka, after Śrīnivāsa. Kisoridasa has left out the name of the twenty-sixth successor called Keśavabhaṭṭa from the list so that the total number of the successors of Nimbārka before the great split after Harivyāsadeva is preserved as thirty.

Chapter 6

- 1. Saurabha, 2.2.10.
- 2. Ibid, 1.4.11.
- 3. *Ibid*, 1.4.1. If it be objected that in the text of the *Katḥa-*branch viz. "Higher than the *mahat* is the *avyakta*, higher than the *avyakta* is the *Puruṣa*" (*Katḥa* 3.11) "What is derived from inference i.e. *pradhāna* too is found mentioned.

See also Saurabha, 1.4.5 where he says that what is higher than mahat is not the Sāmkhya pradhāna but the intelligent Supreme Soul.

- 4. Saurabha, 1.2.23.
- 5. Ibid, 1.3.12.
- 6. Ibid, 2.3.48 f.
- 7. Ibid, 2,3,1-6.
- 8. Ibid, 2.3.7.
- 9. Ibid, 2.3.9.
- 10. Ibid, 2.3.10.
- 11. Ibid, 2.3.11.
- 12. Ibid, 3.1.11.

- 13. Saurabha, 2.4.8.
- 14. Ibid, 1.4.2.
- 15. Ibid, 2.4.8-13, 3.3.10; 4.2.12.
- 16. Ibid, 2.3.15.
- 17. Ibid, 2.4.6.
- 18. Ibid, 2.4.9.
- 19. Ibid, 2.4.10-12.
- 20. Ibid, 2.3.17.
- 21. Ibid, 2.3.42.
- 22. Ibid, 1.4.3.
- 23. Ibid, 1.4.11.
- 24. Ibid, 2.2.10; 1.1.5.
- 25. Ibid, 1.4.2.
- 26. Ibid, 1.4.7.
- 27. Ibid. 1.4.15; 1.4.5-6.
- 28. Ibid. 1.4.15.
- 29. Ibid. 1.1.7-8.
- 30. Ibid, 1.2.23; 1.3.12.
- 31. Ibid, 1.3.3.
- 32. Ibid. 1.1.7.
- 33. Ibid, 1.3.2.
- 34. See chapter ten for details of liberation.
- 35. Saurabha, 2.1.1-2.
- 36. Ibid, 2.2.10.
- 37. Ibid, 1.1.5.
- 38. *Ibid*, 1.3.3; 1.3.12; 1.2.24; 1.2.23; 1.1.7-8; 1.4.1.
- 39. Ibid, 2.2.1.
- 40. Ibid, 2.2.2.
- 41. Ibid, 2.2.3.
- 42. Ibid, 2.2.5.
- 43. Ibid, 2.2.8.
- 44. Ibid, 2.2.7.
- 45. Ibid, 2.2.6.
- 46. Ibid, 1.4.3; 1.4.8-10.
- 47. Ibid, 2.2.3.
- 48. Ibid, 2.2.4.
- 49. Ibid, 2.2.7.
- 50. Ibid, 2.2.37-41. Also see the opponents of Brahmakāraṇavāda, in chapter eight.

- 51. *Ibid*, 2.3.42-45. *Vide infra* for a special discussion on the *Śāktavāda* in this chapter.
- 52. See chapters eight and eleven below.
- 53. Saurabha, 2.3.49.
- 54. Ibid, 2.3.50-52.
- 55. *Ibid*, 2.4.2, See also *Kaustubha* 2.4.7. According to **Chakravarti** (1975, p.147) Vindhyavāsin (beginning of fifth century A.D.) the great Sāmkhya teacher held that the sense organs being directly derived from *ahamkāra* are naturally ubiquitous. This view of Vindhyavāsin is refuted by the author of the *Yuktidīpikā* (pp. 145/18-25). See also Pulinbihari **Chakravarti**, 1975, . 296.
- 56. G.J. Larson, 1969, p. 185.
- 57. Iswarakṛṣṇa seems to have lived before the later part of the sixth century A.D. As G.J, Larson, points out (1969, p.4) the Sāṃkhyakārikās along with the commentary was translated into Chinese by Paramārtha, sometime between A.D. 557-569.
- It is common knowledge that Samkara accepts under BS 58. 1.4.11 the 25 principles of the Samkhya as enumerated by Iśwarakrsna in his kārikā 3. He also seems to be referring to Iśwarakrsna's Kārikās 12,13 and 15 under sūtra 2.2.1. when he says "We must suppose that all inward and outward (i.e.) animate and inanimate) effects which are endowed with the characteristics of pleasure, pain and dullness have for their causes pleasure, pain and dullness in general. Pleasure, pain and dullness in their generality together constitute the threefold pradhāna. This pradhāna which is non-intelligent evolves itself spontaneously into multiform modifications, in order thus to effect the purpose (i.e. enjoyment, release and so on) of the intelligent soul. The existence of the pradhana is to be inferred from other circumstances, also such as the limitations of all effects and the like (Thibaut's translation)".
- N.N Bhattacharya (1974, p.17) traces the root of the Samkhya philosophy to the pre-Vedic matriarchal tradition in India.
- 60, E.H. Johnston, 1937, p.2.
- 61. E.H. **Johnston** 1937, pp. 81-88.
- 62. Erich Frauwallner, 1953, pp. 288-348.
- 63. G.J. Larson, 1969, pp. 77-165.
- 64. G.J. Larson, p.57.
- 65. *Ibid*, p. 164, **Larson** places the *Sāmkhyapravacanasūtra* to this period.

- 66. Pulinbihari **Chakravarti**, 1975, p. 27; Ram Suresh **Panday**, 1972, pp. 76-78.
- 67. G. **Thibaut**, 1962 (ed.) Vol. 48, p. 524 where Rāmānuja uses the term *tantra* with *Pañcarātra* and calls his Vaiṣṇava school as the *Pañcarātratantra*.
- 68. According to P.K. **Sharma** (1974, p.2) the term *tantra* in this sense means a system of magical and sacramental ritual, taught in the sacred Hindu texts known as *tantras*, which teach the attainment of the highest aims of religion by such methods as spells, diagrams (yantras), gestures (mudras) and other physical exercises (yoga).
- 69. Commenting on BS 1.4.4. jñeyatvāvacanāc ca, Nimbārka says nāvyakta śabdas tāntrikapradhāna vacanaḥ jñeyatvāvacanac ca.
- 70. SKI 70-73.

These Kārikās are not found in the text of Gauḍapāda. Therefore it is very significant to note that Gauḍapāda refers to Ṣaṣṭitantra in his bhāṣya on Kārikā 17. Cf. Also AB **Keith**, 1975, p. 72-73. Ram Suresh **Panday**, 1972, p.86 points out that in a number of places Ṣaṣṭitantra is denoted by the short form "tantra".

- 71. (a) Ganganath Jha, 1896, pp. 113-115.
 - (b) M. Hiriyanna, JOR, 1929, pp. 107-112.
 - (c) A.B. Keith, 1949, (IInd ed) p. 72-77.
 - (d) F.O. Scradev, 1914, pp. 101-110.
- 72. K.B. Ramakrishna Rao, 1966, p. 342.
- 73. Pulinbihari Chakravarti, 1975, p. 26.
- 74. Ram Suresh **Panday**, 1972, pp. 76-78. **Panday** points out that a long passage said to be from the *Tantra* and whose author is said to be Devala, the ancient Sāmkhya exponent is found quoted in the Yājāavalkya smṛti. **Panday** identifies this passage with one of the sūtras on *Tattvasamāsa*.
- G.J. Larson 1969, p. 248; Cf. P. Chakravarti, 1975, pp. 168-170.
- 76. Vide his Tattvavaisāradi on Yogasūtra 4.13 & Bhāmati on BS 2.1.3.
- 77. Jayamangala on SKI 70 states "pañcaśikhena muninā bahudhā kritam tantram sastitantrākhyam sastikhandam krtam iti. tatraiva hi sastir arthā vyākhyātāḥ
- 78. A.B. Keith, 1975, p. 68.
- 79. Ibid, p. 69.
- 80. Ibid, p.70.

- 81. Pulinbihari Chakravarti, 1975, p. 26.
- 82. Bhaskara in his bhāṣya on BS 2.11 also calls the Sāmkhya as the Tantra.
- 83. SKI 40.

 pūrvotpannam asaktam niyatam mahadādīsūkṣma paryantam.

 samsarati nirupabhogam bhāvair adhivāsitam lingam.
- 84. Saurabha, 1.4.1. In Saurabha 2.4.8 he speaks of the Mahābhūtas.
- 85. Saurabha, 2.4.19-20, 3.1.2, 4.2.6, See also ch. eight below.
- 86. Ram Suresh Panday, 1972, p. 233.
- 87. Saurabha 4.2.9-10, 4.2.14-16.
- 88. *Ibid*, 3.1.6, 4.1.1-6.
- 89. SKI, 39 ff.
- 90. Saurabha, 2.3.49.
- 91. Ibid, 2.2.8.
- 92. Atheism in Indian thought can be considered in two ways. One type of atheism denies the authority of the Vedas. The second type denies the existence of God. Here by atheism we mean this second type.
- 93. Ahirbudhnya Samhita, Ch. XII. 18-30. vide XII.19 which clearly states "saṣṭibhedam smṛtam tantram samkhyam nāma mahāmune. XII-30 accepts that there had been numerous forms of Samkhya system.
- 94. A.B. Keith, 1975, p. 70.
- 95. Pulinbihari Chakravarti, 1975, p. 120.
- 96. It does not speak of some fundamental Sāmkhya doctrines such as the three *guṇas* and the *satkāryavāda*. Since Aśvaghoṣa is writing a *kāvya* and not a philosophical treatise, he is not expected to incorporate all the Sāmkhya categories into his short account of the Sāmkhya. His Buddhist bias is evident from the fact that he found sufficient place to describe the four kinds of the Buddhist meditations in this short description of Samkhya. Cf. *Buddhacarita* XII. 49-56.
- 97. Like Nimbārka, Madhva also considers these sūtras as refuting the Śāktamata. As will be pointed out below, Madhva is aware of a much developed form of the Śāktavāda, while Nimbārka is unaware of such a later form of the Śāktavāda.
- 98. Cf. B.N.K. Sharma, 1974, Vol, II p. 104.
- 99. As pointed out in chapter one according to J.N. Banerjea

- (1966, p. 10) nobody before Śamkara considered these sūtras as referring in any way to the *Pancarātra* School.
- 100. For example Rāmānuja on BS 2.2.42-45.
- According to A.P. Bhattacharya (1966, p. 80) the fact that 101. Nimbarka does not attack Samkara's rejection of the vyūhavāda is a strong argument for the pre-Samkara existence of Nimbārka. Since Madhya too like Nimbārka considers these sūtras as the rejection of the Śāktavāda. the argument of Bhattacharva loses much of its strength. Although Madhva does not defend the Pañcarātra system here, he makes a defence of its scriptures under BS 1.1.3 and 3.1.15 as we have pointed out in chapter one. The fact that Nimbarka does not make use of these sūtras to explain or to defend the Pancaratra doctrine of vyūha shows only that he was not a follower of the Pancaratra School. The prior existence of Nimbarka to Samkara, and thereby to all the commentators of the extant commentaries of BS is proved by us in chapter four on various counts.
- 102. According to S. **Jaiswal**, 1967, the distinction of these two streams of *Vaiṣṇavism* could be seen even in the 6th century A.D. *Vide supra*, chapter two.
- 103. Cf. Devī Bhāgavata Purāṇa, 1.2.19-22. (Ed. Ram Tej Pandaya Pandit Pustakālaya, Kashi, 1952). As pointed out by P.K. Sharma (1974, pp. 1-2) Śāktism is the worship of goddess while Tāntrism is a system of magical and sacramental rituals, taught in the Tantras. Tāntrism aims at the highest attainments of religion through such methods as spells, diagrams (yantras), gestures (mudras) and other physical exercises (yoga).
- 104. Saurabha, 2.2.42, puruṣam antarena śakteḥ sakāśājjagat ulpatty asambhavān na tatkāraṇavādo'pi sādhuḥ.
- 105. The Pañcarātra doctrine contained in the Ahirbudhnya Saṃhitā 3.28-30 considers Lakṣmī as the śakti of god, through whom he creates the world. Here it is evident that the Pañcarātra Vaiṣṇavism of the pre-Saṃkara days has accommodated the śāktavāda into its own system. The refutation of the Śāktavāda by Nimbārka strengthens the contention that Nimbārka was not a Pañcarātrin.
- 106. Saurabha, 2.2.43, puruṣa saṁsargo'stīticet, puruṣasyakaraṇam nāsti tadānim. It is to be noted that while in the Ahirbudhnya saṁhitā of the Pañcarātras the Puruṣa is the primary principle and Śakti, as the power of the Puruṣa, has only a subordinate place in the Śākta system their roles are interchanged, whereby the Puruṣa

has only a subordinate place. M.C.P. **Srivastava** (1974, p. 97-98) seems to hint that the philosophical foundation for the superior role of the Sakti in the creative process has already been laid by the teaching of the Samkhya system, originally expounded by Kapila, in which the Purusa plays only a very subordinate role in the process of evolution.

- 107. Saurabha, 2.2.44, svābhāvikavijnānādibhāve khalu jagatkarttrtve kaḥ pratiṣedhaḥ? svato vinaṣṭaḥ śaktivādaḥ brahmasvikārāt. Cf. also Nimbārka's criticism of the opponents of the Brahmakāraṇavāda in chapter eight below.
- 108. Ibid, 2.2.45. Śrutismrtivipratiṣedhācca śaktipakṣo'-prāmāṇikaḥ.
- 109. B.N.K. Sharma, 1974, Vol. II, p. 104.
- 110. Jadunath Sinha, 1971, Vol.III, p. 93.
- 111. Cf. Also Nimbārka's criticism of the Pāsupata School under BS 2.2.37-41. In the Pāsupata School the Pasupati is presented as a "potter god" depending on the upādānakāraṇa.

Here in the Mahāvāma system, Śiva has only a subordinate role as has the Puruṣa of the Sāmkhyas.

- 112. B.N.K. **Sharma**, 1974, Vol. II, p. 104, while the *Mahāvāmas* give no special role to Śiva in the evolution the Sāmbhava and the Ānava give Śiva a greater role.
- 113. BS, 2.2.42, utpattyasambhavāt.
- 114. BS, 2.2.43, nacakartuḥ karaṇam.
- 115. BS, 2.2.44, vijňānādibhāve vātadapratiṣedaļ.
- 116. BS, 2.2.45, vipratiședhācca.
- 117. As pointed out by scholars the origin of the *Śāktavāda* as a philosophical school might be a development of the original Sāmkhya philosophy (Cf. M.C.P. **Srivastava**, 1979, p. 97, S.B. **Dasgupta**, 1958, p. 100).

N.N. **Bhattacharya** (1977, pp. 267-269) is of the opinion that the origin of the anomalous position of the Purusa in the Sāmkhya may presumably be traced to the anomalous position of the males in a matriarchal society.

118. Jayatīrtha's Tattvaprakāśikā on BS 2.2.43 asty eva śaktyanugrāhakah puruṣah sadāśivo'tastasyā jagad utpattir yukteti keṣāmcic — chākteyānām matam nirākurvat sūtram upanyasya vyācaṣṭe na ceti. yadi puruṣo'ngīkriyate śakty anugrāhakas tathāpi tasyotpatty upayogijnānādi sādhanābhāvenotpatty anupapattir ev-ety-arthah.

- 119. Jayatīrtha on BS 2.2.44, śakty anugrāhakasya pumsaḥ sārva jñādisadbhāvena yuktatarā jagad utpattir iti kecit. tan mātanirāsāya sūtram patḥitva vyācaste vijñāneti. yadi śakty anugrāhakaśyeśvarasya vijñādikaraṇam aṅgikriyate tadā tenaiva jagad utpatti sambhavād vyartham śakter api pṛthak kartrtvāngikaraṇam syāt tathā cānena śakteyamatena prakṛtapāśupatasyāpratiṣedhaḥkṛtaḥsyāt anumatameva syāt tac ca nirastam iti bhāvaḥ.
- 120. Cf. B.N.K. Sharma, 1974, p. 107.
- 121. Cf. Also B.N.K. **Sharma**, 1974, pp. 107-122 for an evaluation of the discussion of Samkara and Rāmānuja on this adhikarana.
- 122. P.K. Sharma, (1974, p.5) perceives three distinct stages or phases in the development of Saktism. (a) Ancient or pre-Buddhist, going back to pre-historic times (b) Ancient, Mediaeval or post-Buddhist, rather post-Christian upto 12th Century, (c) Modern, from 13th Century onwards. Nimbārka seems to belong to the second phase while Madhva seems to belong to the third phase. We have already pointed out that Nimbārka is a pre-Samkara commentator. It is a matter of common knowledge that Madhva lived sometime in the 13th Century A.D.
- 123. For example:
 - J. Marshell, Mohenjodaro and the Indus Civilization, Vol. I London, 1931.
 - E.A. Payne, The Śāktas, Calcutta, 1933.
 - S.K. **Das**, *Sakti or Divine Power*, University of Calcutta, 1934.
 - O.R. Ehrenfels, Mother-right in India, Hyderabad. 1941.
 - S.K. Diksit, The mother Goddess, Poona, 1943.
 - D.P. Chattopadhyaya, Lokāyata, Delhi, 1959.
 - $E.O. \textit{\textbf{James}}, \textit{The Cult of the Mother-Goddess}, London, 1959.$
 - J.N. Banerjea, Puranic and Tantric Religion, Calcutta, 1966.
 - R.N. **Dandekar**, "Some Aspects of the History of Hinduism", Poona 1967.
 - P.K. Sharma, Sakti Cult in Ancient India, Varanasi, 1974.
 - N.N. **Bhattacharya**, History of the Śākta Religion, Delhi, 1977 The Indian Mother Goddess, Delhi, 1977.

Lalan Prasad **Singh,** Tantra: Its Mystic and Scientific Basis, Delhi, 1976. M.C.P. **Srivastava**, Mother Goddess in Indian Art, Archeology and Literature, Delhi 1979.

S.K. Lal, Female divinities in Hindu Mythology and Ritual, Poona, 1980.

- 124. M.C.P. Srivastava, 1979, p. 197.
- 125. J. Marshall, 1931, Vol. I, p. 52 and p. 341.
- 126. N.N. Bhattacharya, 1974, p. 2.
- N.N. Bhattacharya, 1977, p. 68.
 Cf. R. Ehrenfels, 1941, p. 18 ff. 121-129, 204 ff.
 D.P. Chattopadhyaya, 1959, p. 232.
- R. Briffault, 1917, p. 117.
 Hogarth in Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics (ed.)
 Hastings, Vol. I, 1908, p. 142.
- 129. E.O. James, 1959, pp. 103-113.Cf. M.C.P. Srivastava, 1979, pp. 32-62 and 197.
- P.K. Sharma, 1974, pp. 9-16.
 S.K. Lal, (1980) traces the origin and development of 18 female deities in the Vedic and post-Vedic society in his work referred to earlier.
- 131. M.C.P. Srivastava, 1979, p. 198, Cf. Also pp. 63-89.
- N.N. Bhattacharya, 1974, pp. 32-35.
 Cf. Also D.P. Chattopadhyaya, 1958, pp. 318-19.
 Bachhofer, 1927, Reprint, 1973, pp.14-15.
 Rowland, 1953, p. 23.
- 133. S.K. Diksit, 1942, p. 59.
- 134. P.K. **Sharma**, 1974, p. 4, pp. 20-37.
- 135. M.C.P. Srivastava, 1979, p. 132.
- N.N Bhattacharya, 1974, pp. 44-51.
 M.C.P. Srivastava, 1979, p. 109.
 J.N. Banerjea, 1974, pp. 111 f. 230, 489-509, 1966, pp. 110-132.
- N.N. Bhattacharya, 1974, p.66.
 B.C. Bhattacharya, 1939, p. 24 f.
 R.P. Chanda, 1916, p. 129.
 J.N. Banerjea, 1974, pp. 89. 181-189.
- 138. E.A. Payne, 1933, p. 39.
- 139. P.K. Sharma, 1974, p. 32.

- 140. Varāhamihira in his Brhat-Samhitā (chapter 59, verse 19).
- 141. As quoted by J.N. Banerjea, 1966, p. 12, Also 1974, p. 230.
- 142. CII, Vol.III, p. 78 as quoted by J.N. Banerjea, '74, p. 194.
- 143. Fleet's translation as quoted by J.N. Banerjea, '74, p. 494.
- 144. J. **Muir**, Vol. IV, p. 369.

M.C.P. Srivastava, 1979, p. 109.

In ch. two, we have seen that the southern tradition places Nimbārka to the region of Tailanga. The fact that he criticises the $\acute{Saktav\bar{a}da}$ may reinforce the belief that he lived in the region of Tailanga, which is very close to the Vindhyā the perpetual abode of the Goddess.

- 145. M.C.P. **Srivastava**, 1979, p. 12, p. 124.
 P.K. **Sharma**, (1974, pp. 52-68) points out that greater development of the doctrinal aspect of *Śāktism* is found in the later *Purāṇas* like *Devī Bhāgavatam*
- 146. V.S. Agrawal, 1961, p. 19.
- 147. P.K. **Sharma**, (1974, p. 48) says that these 13 chapters of the *Mārkandeya Purāṇa*, named as *Durgāsaptasati* and *Devī Māhātmya* have the status of a scripture of the highest sanctity and efficacy. The Supreme Principle of Reality has been invoked and glorified under the name of the Devī.
- 148. N.N. Bhattacharya, 1974, p. 73.
- 149. J.N. Banerjea, 1974, p. 493.
- 150. Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa, chapter 85, Pargiter's translation.
- 151. J.N. Banerjea, 1974, p. 496 ff.
- 152. Ibid, p. 497.
- 153. It is generally accepted that the *Brahmasūtras* were composed before the 5th century A.D. See chapter two above. It seems that we can safely assign them to the first century A.D.
- 154. Cf. C.J. Larson, 1969, p. 4.
- 155. Ādiśeṣa's *Paramārthasāra* (text and tr.) by Henry **Danielson** (Religious texts Translation series, Nisaba, Vol. 10, Leiden, E.J. Brill, 1980, pp. X, 87, gld. 28). The *Paramārthasāra* consists of 87 verses, the first two are in *Triṣtubha* metre and the rest in *Āryā metre*.
- 156. According to Danielson (1980, pp. 1-2), the Paramārthasāra, was written sometime before 550 A.D. Vide also Victor A. Van Bijlert. Ādiśeṣa "Paramārthasāra" philosophy East and West. Vol. 33, No. 1, 1983, pp. 99-100, University of Hawaii.

- 157. Vide infra chapters eight, nine and ten.
- 158. Scholars of Nimbārka School like Nrusingh Das Vasu, Virajakanta Ghosh, A.P. Bhattacharya, and N.D. Sharma also assign Nimbārka to pre-Samkara period. Their conclusions vary in so far as they differ in assigning an average life span per ācārya of the Sect given in the list of Guruparamparās (Cf. Kathiyababa, 1972, pp. 55-56). Since these scholars, with the exception of N.D. Sharma,

Since these scholars, with the exception of N.D. Sharma, have exposed their findings in Bengali, it was not possible for me to follow their arguments. Their findings also give additional support to our conclusion, arrived at solely on the basis of the *Vedāntapārijata Saurabha*, the *opus magnum* of Nimbārka.

- 159. See chapter two above.
- 160. See chapter five above.

Chapter 7

- 1. The great bulk of the scriptural references in the Saurabha is from the Chāndogya Upaniṣad.
- 2. The text "dharmeṇa pāpam apanudati "in Saurabha 3.4.35 seems to be from the Mahānārāyaṇopaniṣad 22.1 which reads dharmena pāpam apanudanti. It is more probable that both Nimbārka and the author of Mahānārāyaṇa might have received the text from a common source, which cannot be traced now. It could also be a variant reading of the same Mahānārāyaṇa text. The Mahānārāyaṇopaniṣad is an appendix of the Taittirīyaranyaka dating back to the vedic times.
- 3. Although the term Brahman is neuter gender in Sanskrit we take it as masculine in our analysis and the philosophical discussions because Nimbārka identifies Brahman with Bhagavān Vāsudeva Ramākānta Puruṣottama.
- 4. Madhuvidyā is the representation of the sun as the honey extracted from all the Vedas. Prajāpati was taught this vidyā first by Brahma. Prajāpati taught it to Manu, and Manu in his turn taught it to all his descendants. Finally Uddālaka Āruṇi was taught this by his father (Vide Chānd 3.1.3.11) According to Brh 2.5.6-19 the Madhuvidyā is the doctrine of the corelativity of all things and the immanence of the ātman, taught to the two Aświnis by Dadhyañca Ātharvaṇa. The other vidyās mentioned in the Saurabha and Kaustubha are the Upakośalavidyā (knowledge obtained by Upakośala

the disciple of Satyakāma Jabāla). (Chānd 4.10-4.15 Cf Kaustubha 1.2.13); the Paācāgnividyā (taught to Gautama by King Pravāhana) (Bṛh6.2 and Chānd 5.4-5.10 Cf Kaustubha 3.1.1) the Daharavidyā, the doctrine that the universal soul is within the heart of man (Chānd 8.1-8.6, Mahānārayaṇopaniṣad 10.7 Cf. Kaustubha 1.3.14-23, 3.3.38) the Śāṇḍilyavidyā (Bṛh 5.6, Śat Br 10.6.3, Chānd 3.15.Cf Kaustubha 3.3.19) and Vaiśvānaravidyā (Chānd 5.11-5.18 Cf Kaustubha 1.2.25 3.3.35).

- 5. In the Vaisesika system it is held that every kind of atom is possessed of the five qualities of smell etc.
- 6. What is an effect has an origin.
- 7. Here he does not mention in which text there is a direct mention of the origin of the sense organs. Śrīnivāsa makes it clear in *Kaustubha* that the text is *Mund* 2.1.3. "From him arise the *prāṇa*, *mana* and all the *indriyas*, the ether, the air". See also *Saurabha* 2.4.17, 2.3.15.
- 8. Nimbārka seeks to understand by the term Prāṇā (plural) the sense organs (Cf. Saurabha 2.4.4,7.) By the term prāṇa (singular) he normally understands the chief vital breath or its five-fold forms like apāna etc. (Saurabha 2.4.8, 9, 12 etc.) Their distinction is clear in Saurabha 2.4.17, 18.
- 9. Brahman is both the source of light and at the same time untouched by the defects of the objects to be illumined.
- A sentence can have its full significance only when it signifies all that it expresses, without leaving out anything.
- 11. The *neti neti (Brh* 2.3.6) denies only limitations of the finite on the part of Brahman. There is nothing higher than Brahman.
- 12. These various descriptions in the *śruti* show that there must exist some other reality besides Brahman. See the explanation given by the *Siddhāntin*.
- 13. The rinsing of the mouth with water before and after meals, which is enjoined by custom and *smrti* is rementioned in *Sat. Br* 14.9.215 thereby enjoining the meditation on water as the dress of *Prāṇa*.
- 14. Pravargya is an introductory ceremony in a Soma sacrifice. Śrīnivāsa clarifies that the doubt here is whether the sacred formulas and the sacrificial acts like Pravargya etc. mentioned in certain vidyās are to be included in the meditation on Brahman as its subsidiary parts as they are being mentioned in close proximity or not.

- 15. Upakośala Vidyā Vide Chānd 410-415. The story is this "Upakośala Kāmatāyana dwelt with Satyakāma Jabāla as a student for 12 years tending the fires. But his teacher did not teach him Brahmavidyā, nor allowed him to go back home. When his teacher went off on a long journey Upakośala filled with grief, began to fast. At this the three fires, Gārhapatya, Anvāhārya and Āhavanīya took pity on him and taught him Agnividyā and Ātma vidyā and told him that his teacher will instruct him more. His teacher on his return taught him thus "that person who is seen within the eye is the ātman that is the immortal, the fearless, that is Brahman. (Chānd 4. 15.1). Satyakāma Jabāla instructed him further on the path of God's (Chānd 4.15.5).
- 16. Chānd 5.3-5.10 See also fn. 4 above.
- 17. Dahara Vidya or the doctrine of the small i.e. the doctrine that the Universal soul is within the heart of man. What is within that should be searched for that certainly is what one should desire to understand (See *Chānd* 8-6. 1-5)
- 18. CSS ed. omits the portion "stotra śāśtrādibhyo" found with Vrindāvana edition. Perhaps this portion may be a later interpolation.
- 19. The Vrindāvana edition omits the phrase "Vidyāvataḥ".

Chapter 8

- 1. V.S Ghate, 1960, pp. 169-70.
- 2. BS, 1.4.20.
- 3. BS, 1.4.21.
- 4. BS, 1.4.22.
- 5. Brh, 3.8.8-11
- 6. Chānd, 6.1.3-4, Tait. Br 2.8.9.6-7, Muṇḍ 1.1.6.
- 7. Ait. Up. 1.1.3, 1.2.3-4, Brh, 2.5.1 ff.
- 8. Saurabha, 1.1.4 nanu pratyakṣādi pramāṇāviṣayakatvavacchabda pramāṇāviṣayatvasyāpi śruti siddhatvān na śāstraikaprameyam brahm eti prāpte brumaḥ jijnāsyam Brahma śāstrapramāṇakam eva nānyapramāṇakam.
- 9. The commentary called *Śrutyantara Suradruma* attributed to Sri Purusottama Prasāda on Verse 19 of *Saviseṣanirviseṣa śrikrsnastava* discusses the various types of perception and

- inference. The whole process is just like that of the Nyāya School. The need of evaluating the validity of the means of knowledge arose in the context of polemics against other Schools. See *śrutyantara suradruma* (Benaras Sanskrit series. Nos. 135, 136, 141; 1907-8, pp. 183-204.)
- 10. Saurabha 1.1.2 ...That very Lord the substratum of infinite attributes like Omniscience, etc, and the ruler of Brahmā, Śiva, Kāla (time) and the rest from whom arise the origination, subsistence and dissolution "of this" i.e. of the universe endowed with manifold combination, the abode of innumerable peculiarities of names and forms and the like; and the form of which is inconceivable— is Brahman, the object of the above statement...
- 11. Ibid, 2.1.15, tad anyanyatvam kāraṇaśadbhāve kāryopalabdeḥ.
- 12. Ibid, 1.1.3, śāstram eva yonis taj jñāptikāraņam yasmins tad evokta lakṣaṇalakṣitam vastu brahmaśabdābhidheyam iti.
- 13. Cf. Saurabha, 2.1.1.f. 4.2.6.
- 14. Ibid, 1.3.28, 3.2.24, 4.3.10 etc.
- 15. Vide supra, "The source of the Saurabha in chapter seven".
- 16. Saurabha, 1.3.25.
- 17. Saurabha, 1.1.4,...tattad vākyaviṣayānām sarveṣām api brahmātmakatve'pi sāksād eva brahmaṇi samanvayaḥ.
- 18. Ibid, 1.1.1, 1.1.4, 3.4.26.
- 19. Ibid, 1.1.4.
- 20. Ibid, 1.1.4
- 21. Ibid, 3.4.23-24.
- 22. Vasiṣṭha Smṛṭi, 18.9, sudra samipe nādhyetavyam.
- 23. Manu Smrti, 4.80, na cāsyopadiśed dharmam na cāsya vratam ādiśet, na śūdrāya matim dadyāt.
 10.126 na śūdre patakam kincinna ca samskāram arhati.
- 24. GDS, 10.50, śūdrascaturtho varņa ekajātiļ.
- 25. Saurabha, 1.3.34-39.
- 26. It is to be noted that the *Vedāntaratna Mañjūṣā* (pp. 74 and 127) allows the Śūdras the right to meditation based on the Purāṇas. Perhaps Puruṣottama Prasāda I, the author of the said work, wanted to reform the Sect in accordance with the demands of his time.
- 27. Saurabha, 2.3.47. Here he quotes the Tait. Sam. 7.1.1. which forbids the initiation of a Śūdra to a sacrifice "śūdro"

yajñenāvaklaptaḥ". He does not explain how a Sūdra can attain liberation.

- 28. Saurabha, 3.4.6.
- 29. Ibid, 3.4.12.
- 30. Ibid, 1.1.1 An enquiry is to be instituted, at all times, into Purusottama, Rama's Husband, denoted by the term "Brahman", the greatest of all because of His infinite, inconceivable and innate nature, qualities, powers and so on - by one who has studied the Veda with its six parts; who has been assailed with doubt arising from texts which teach that the fruits of works are both transitory and eternal, who has, for that very reason, enquired into the science which is concerned with the consideration of religious duties, and has, thereby, gained the knowledge determined therein regarding works, their kinds and their fruits, in whom, as a consequence, there arisen a disregard (for worldly objects) that is the result of a discrimination between the finitude and eternity of the fruits of the knowledge of works and Brahman repectively; the former being surpassable, the latter nonsurpassable who wishes for the grace of the Lord; who is covetous of having a vision of Him, to whom the spiritual preceptor is the only God; who has whole-hearted devotion for the holy spiritual teacher; and who is desirous of final release....
- 31. Saurabha 1.1.1. ācāryaika devena...mumukṣuṇā...
- 32. Ibid, 1.1.1.śrigurubhakty ekahārdena mumukṣuṇā.
- 33. Ibid, 1.3.8. paramācāryaiḥ śrīkumārair asmad gurave śrīmannāradāyopadisto....
- 34. Here he does not address Nārada as Śrīguru. Nowhere in the Saurabha he speaks of any whole hearted devotion to an earthly guru. Does Śrīguru in Saurabha 1.1.1 mean Śrīpuruṣottama? If so the whole hearted devotion to Śrīguru becomes all the more meaningful.
- 35. Saurabha 3.4.27 "Hence he who knows thus, having become calm, self restrained, indifferent, patient and collected, should see the self in the self alone" (*Brh* 4.4.23).
- 36. Saurabha 3.4.46.
- 37. Ibid, 1.2.17.
- 38. Chānd, 8.7.11, Cf, also Saurabha 1.1.29-31.
- 39. Saurabha, 1.4.19, 3.4.24.
- 40. Ibid, 4.1.3.
- 41. Ibid, 2.1.21, 4.1.5

- 42. Saurabha, 1.1.1.
- 43. Ibid, 1.4.15, 1,2,23, 3.2.36.
- 44. Ibid, 3.2.31-36.
- 45. Ibid, 1.1.25-28.
- 46. Ibid. 1.1.25-28.
- 47. *Ibid*, 1.1.13-15, 21-22 etc. In many passages in the *Saurabha* Brahman is described as the Paramātman.
- 48. Ibid, 1.1.4.
- 49. Ibid, 1.1.1.
- 50. Ibid, 1.1.2 "...brahmeśakālādi niyantur bhavagato...."
- 51. Nowhere in the Saurabha the Paramatman is identified with the name Kṛṣṇa though the name Vāsudeva is used once.
- 52. Cf. Śrutyantasuradruma (p. 103) describes Viṣvakṣeṇa, Jaya etc. as the attendants of the Supreme Lord; Garuḍa as His conveyance, Śeṣa as His couch, Śaṅkha etc. as His weapons and crown, Kaustubha etc. as His ornaments...
- 53. No *vyūhas* or *avatāras* are mentioned or accepted in the Saurabha. Unlike Rāmānuja the Saurabhakara does not describe Brahman as *saccidānanda svarūpa*.
- 54. Saurabha, 3.2.22-23, 2.3.46.
- 55. Ibid. 2.1.29, 2.1.35.
- 56. Ibid, 3.2.11.
- 57. Ibid, 3.2.15-21.
- 58. Ibid, 2.1.30, 2.1.35.
- 59. Ibid, 2.1.23.
- 60. I.bid, 1.1.14.
- 61. Ibid, 1.1.2.
- 62. Ibid, 1.1.13-20.
- 63. Ibid, 1.2.1-8.
- 64. Ibid, 1.2.16.
- 65. *Ibid*, 1.2.13-18, 1.1.21-22.
- 66. Ibid, 1.1.23, 1.3.42.
- 67. Ibid, 1.1.24-28.
- 68. Ibid, 1.3.8-9.
- 69. Ibid, 1.2.26-33.
- 70. Ibid, 1.3.14-23.
- 71. Ibid, 1.2.22-23.
- 72. Ibid, 1.3.10-12, 1.3.16, 1.3.40.
- 73. Ibid, 1.3.24-25, 1.3.40-41.

- 74. Ibid, 1.1.1., 1.1.4, 2.1.29-30, 1.3.19, 1.3.24 etc.
- 75. Ibid, 1.3.18, 1.1.21, 3.2.3, 4.4.7.
- 76. Vide .Chand 8.1.5.
- 77. Saurabha, 1.3.18-20, 1.1.29, 1.2.2, 3.2.5— In Saurabha 1.3.19 Nimbārka points out that the Brahman has these eight-fold qualities ever manifest while the jīva possesses them in a veiled manner in the state of bondage. They will be made manifest in liberation.
- 78. Ibid, 1.1.13-20. 1.2.15-16, 3.2.39.
- 79. Ibid, 1.3.9.
- 80. Ibid, 1.1.15
- 81. Ibid, 3.2.14, 2.3.8.
- 82. Ibid, 1.1.29.
- 83. Ibid, 2.3.8, 1.4.27, 1.2.23, 1.2.1, 1.3.17.
- 84. Ibid, 1.3.1.
- 85. Ibid, 1.4.14.
- 86. Ibid, 1.1.2.
- 87. Ibid, 2.1.35, 1.4.14.
- 88. Ibid, 1.1.3, 1.4.14-15, 1.3.42, 1.1.19.
- 89. Ibid, 1.2.9 ff. 1.3.2-7, 1.3.15.
- 90. Ibid, 1.1.23-24, Cf. Chānd 1.9.1. sarvāṇi ha vā imāṇi bhūtāny ākāśād eva samutpadyante, ākāśam pratyastam yanti ākāśo hy evaibhyo jyāyān.
- 91. Ibid, 2.1.31.
- 92. Ibid, 1.1.2, 1.1.4, 1.1.12, 1.4.14, 1.4.26 etc.
- 93. Ibid, 2.1.27.
- 94. Ibid, 1.4.14, 1.4.26, 2.1.23, 2.1.27, 2.1.29 etc.
- 95. Ibid, 2.1.29.
- 96. Ibid, 1.1.29.
- 97. Ibid, 1.2.13.
- 98. Ibid, 1.2.13.
- 99. Ibid, 3.2.12.
- 100. Ibid, 3.2.37, 1.3.40.
- 101. Ibid, 1.2.6-10, 1.1.32.
- 102. Ibid, 2.1.23.
- 103. Ibid, 1.1.4.
- 104. Ibid, 1.1.12, 1.2.19-21, 3.2.11-12.

- 105. Saurabha, 1.2.19-21.
- 106. Ibid, 3.2.12-14.
- 107. SNKS contains such descriptions of the qualities like śānti, kānti sudhānidhi (Cf. Ślokas 1 and 3).
- 108. The Daśāślokī (contains such descriptions. See also chapter two above.)
- 109. Manjūsā, pp. 43-45.
- 110. It may be inferred that such aspects of bhakti came to the Nimbārka school at a later period. If the Saurabhakāra ever considered the premaviśeṣalakṣaṇā bhakti based on the tender qualities of Brahman as a means to liberation, he could have emphasized such qualities of Brahman in the Saurabha itself.
- 111. Isa 1.1. Muṇḍ 1.1.6, 3.1.3.
- 112. Saurabha 1.4.23-26.
- 113. Ibid, 3.2.14.
- 114. Ibid, 1.1.19, 1.4.15.
- 115. We will discuss these points in detail in chapter eleven.
- 116. Chānd 3.19.1, Tait 2.6.
- 117. Chānd 3.19.1 Tait 2.7, Cf. Saurabha 2.1.17.
- 118. Brh. 1.4.7.
- 119. Saurabha, 1.4.15.
- 120. Ibid, 1.4.26.
- 121. Ibid, 1.4.10.
- 122. Chānd, 6.1.3-4.
- 123. Saurabha, 1.4.23-24.
- 124. Ibid, 2.1.23-24, 2.1.27, 2.1.30.
- 125. Ibid, 2.1.29.
- 126. Ibid, 2.1.33, Cf. 2.1.20.
- 127. Ibid, 1.4.24, 2.1.24-26.
- 128. In Western philosophy too the relationship between the cause and the effect is a classical problem. The Thomist tradition asserts that the effect is in the cause as cause (Effectus est in causa in quantum est causa). Indian tradition of the satkāryavāda too has a similar view.
- 129. Saurabha, 2.1.23.
- 130. Ibid, 3.2.37, 2.1.25-27.
- 131. Bṛh 1.4.26.

- 132. Ibid, 2.1.26.
- 133. Ibid, 2.1.13.
- 134. Ibid, 1.1.5, 1.4.1-13, 2.1.10, 2.2.1-2.
- 135. Ibid, 1.1.5.
- 136. Ibid, 1.2.9.
- 137. Ibid, 2.2.1.
- 138. Ibid, 1.1.5, 1.1.10.
- 139. Ibid, 1.1.8, 1.1.11-12, 1.4.9-10.
- 140. Ibid, 2.2.2-3, 5.
- 141. Ibid, 2.2.4, 7.
- 142. Ibid, 2.2.6-8.
- 143. Ibid, 1.1.7-8, 1.1.12.
- 144. Ibid, 1.4.16-17, Cf. 1.1.5-12.
- 145. Ibid, 1.4.23-27.
- 146. Ibid, 1.1.15.
- 147. Ibid, 1.4.3.
- 148. Ibid, 1.4.11.
- 149. Ibid, 2.1.4-10, 23-27.
- 150. Ibid. 2.2.3.
- 151. Ibid, 2.2.7.
- 152. Ibid, 2.2.11-17.
- 153. Ibid, 2.2.11.
- 154. Ibid, 2.2.12.
- 155. Ibid, 2.2.14.
- 156. Ibid, 2.2.13.
- 157. Ibid, 2.2.15.
- 158. Ibid, 2.2.16.
- 159. Ibid, 2.2.17.
- 160. Ibid, 2.2.18.
- 161. Ibid, 2.2.19.
- 162. Ibid, 2.2.20.
- 163. Ibid, 2.2.21.
- 164. Ibid, 2.2.22.
- 165. Ibid, 2.2.23.
- 166. Ibid. 2.2.37.
- 167. Ibid, 2.2.38.

- 168. Ibid., 2.2.38.
- 169. *Ibid*, 2.2.39. It would also imply that Brahman has no body either eternal or non-eternal, material or non-material.
- 170. *Ibid*, 2.2.40. *bhoga* generates *karma*, which is the cause of bondage.
- 171. *Ibid*, 2.2.41, The ultimate cause must be Beginningless, Omnipotent and Omniscient. He is without an origin as well as an end.
- 172. Ibid, 2.2.42.
- 173. Ibid, 2.2.43.
- 174. *Ibid*, 2.2.44, The ultimate cause is the one who is Omniscient, Omnipotent and there exists nothing besides Him.
- 175. Ibid, 2.2.45.
- 176. Ibid, 2.1.15, "kāraņa sadbhāva kāryopalabheḥ".
- 177. Ibid, 2.1.16, "āvarakālīnasya kāryasya kāraņe sattvād".
- 178. Ibid, 1.4.23-24.
- 179. Ibid, 2.1.10-11.
- 180. Ibid, 2.1.71.
- 181. Ibid, 2.1.14; 2.1.21.
- 182. Ibid, 2.1.4-7.
- 183. Ibid, 1.4.3.
- 184. Ibid, 1.4.8, Cf. Svet 4.5.
- 185. *Ibid*, 1.4.10. It is to be noted that while some great Nimbārkite scholars like Puruṣottama (Cf. *Mañjūṣā*p. 657) and Devācārya (S.J. 1.1.2, p. 121) defend the position of the Saurabhakāra that Brahman is both the *nimitta* and *upādānakāraṇa* of the universe, another great thinker of Nimbārka School, Vanamāli Miśra (Vide SSS V. 10-12, 16-17, 19-21) considers Brahman as the *nimittakāraṇa* only and *prakṛti* as the *upādānakāraṇa* of the universe.
- 186. Ibid, 3.1.31.
- 187. *Ibid*, 2.1.32. That the creative sport of Brahman is not the same as the *rāsalīlā* (dalliance of *Kṛṣṇa* with the *gopis*) is self evident.
- 188. Ibid, 2.1.33-34.
- 189. Brh. 3.2.13.
- 190. Saurabha, 2.4.19-21. The Saurabhakāra follows the comparatively older Upaniṣadic theory of tripartition (trtvrtkaraṇa) (Chānd 6.3.3) rather than the later theory of Pañcikaraṇa adoted by the Vedāntaratnamañjūsā (p. 36).

- 191. Saurabha, 2.4.20.
- 192. Ibid, 2.4.19.
- 193. Ibid, 2.3.15, 2.4.1-4.
- 194. Ibid, 2.3.14.
- 195. Purusottama in his *Vedāntaratnamanjuṣā* 9 (pp. 23-31) explains the process of evolution in the Sāmkhya lines.
- 196. Saurabha, 2.3.5.
- 197. Ibid, 2.3.6.
- 198. As pointed by Roma **Bose** (1940 p. 345) Nimbārka takes the sūtra: "yāvad vikāram tu udbhavo lokavat(Saurabha 2.3.6) to mean that whenever there is an effect there is origin. His explanation of the sutra seems to be rather simple. Also his illustration for lokavat namely "in ordinary life when referring to the group of Devadatta's sons the origin of some of them is mentioned, thereby the origin of all the rest is mentioned" lacks sophistication and refinement.

Samkara on the other hand takes the sūtra to prove that the ether etc. are effects. He constructs his arguments as follows:

No non-effect is divided.

The ether is divided.

Therefore the ether is an effect.

For Śamkara the problem is not merely the non-mention of ether, which has been answered in the previous $s\bar{u}tra$. Here the $k\bar{a}ryatva$ (the created nature) of the world is being settled. He is also aware that the $s\bar{u}tra$ does not say " $y\bar{a}vad$ $vih\bar{a}gas$ $t\bar{a}vad$ $vih\bar{a}ra$ " but on the contrary " $Y\bar{a}vad$ $vih\bar{a}ras$ $t\bar{a}vad$ $vih\bar{a}ga$ ". Śamkara does not want to change the formulation of the $s\bar{u}tra$. Therefore he formulates a negatives syllogism as given above.

Division is a property of effect. Division is the proper middle term (*liṅga*) applicable to all the members of the class and only to them (*omni et soli*). If there is something to which division does not apply, it must be uncreated. That to which the middle term "division" cannot be applied and that which is uncreated is the $\bar{a}tman$.

Samkara's interpretation of *lokavat* is also different. He connects it with the preceding part of the *sūtra*, meaning in ordinary life we observe that whatever is an effect is divided.

- 199. Saurabha, 2.3.9-12.
- 200. *Ibid*, 2.3.13. It is to be noted that Śamkara does not consider sūtras 9 to 12 as pūrvapaksa. But he accepts all the 5 sūtras

(9-13) as the *siddhānta*. *Sūtra* 13 is considered as clarifying the position that the subtler elements are giving rise to the grosser elements. The elements themselves are unable to do it. But the Lord, who abides within the subtler elements, gives rise to the grosser elements.

- 201. Saurabha, 2.3.15.
- 202. Ibid, 2.3.15.
- 203. Ibid, 2.3.13.
- 204. Ibid, 2.3.14.
- 205. Ibid. 2.1.9.
- 206. Ibid, 1.2.8.
- 207. Ibid, 3.2.11.
- 208. Ibid. 2.3.45-46.
- 209. Ibid. 2.1.9. 2.1.13.
- 210. *Ibid*, 2.3.45-48, The amśāmśi relation is to be understood in a metaphysical and transcendental level rather than on a physical level. *Vide* chapter eleven below.
- 211. Ibid, 2.1.13, 2.1.21-22 Vide infra chapter eleven.
- 212. Ibid, 1.1.1. 1.1.2 etc.
- 213. Ibid, 1.2.9-10, etc.
- 214. Ibid, 1.1.4, 3.2.39-41.
- 215. Ibid, 3.2.5.
- 216. Ibid, 3.2.24. See chapter ten for the means of liberation.
- 217. *Ibid*, 1.4.15, It is to be noted that in the *Saurabha* there is no mention of the descent or manifestation of Brahman in the form of *avatāras* and *vyūhas* in order to liberate his devotees as accepted by the Nimbārkites of today, perhaps, on the basis of *Daśaślokī* 4.8.
- (1) Vanamāli Miśra (SSS, IV. 23-27) describes the descent of the four-fold divine emanations (Vyūha) consisting of Vāsudeva, Samkarṣaṇa, Pradyumna and Aniruddha from the Supreme godhead.
- (2) Puruṣottama (Mañjūṣā on DS' 5) describes the 3 types of Divine Incarnations (Avatāras). They are the "Guṇāvatārā, the Puruṣavatāra and Līlāvatāra. Brahmā, Viṣṇu and Śiva who are the creator, preserver and destroyer of the world respectively with the aid of rajas, sattva and tamas respectively are the Guṇāvatāras. There are also 3 Puruṣāvatāras. They are kāraṇārṇavaśayi (god lying in the Ocean of causal water) garbhodaśayī (god lying in the cosmic embryo) and

ksirodaśayi (god lying in the ocean of causal milk). The Līlāvatāras are divided into two types. They are Āveśāvatāras and Svarupāvatāras. While the first category of avatāras are influenced by God the second are the incarnations of His essential nature. The Avesavatāras are again of two kinds. Svāmsāvesa and Saktyamsāvesa. The latter are again divided into two classes, Prabhava and Vibhava. Nara and Nārāyana are examples of svāmsāvesa avatāras, which are incarnations of Brahman's own parts influened by Him. The Saktuamsavesas are incarnations influenced by the parts of His power. Among them, the examples for prabhavas are Dhanvantari, Paraśurāma etc. while Kapila, Nārada, Vyāsa, etc, are the vibhava incarnations. Nrsimha, Rāma and Krsna are the examples of svarūpāvatāra. There are two kinds of svarūpāvatāras. Partial and complete. Matsya (fish), Kūrma (tortoise), Varāha, etc. are only partial svarūpāvatāra while the incarnations as Rama and Krsna are complete. (Cf. Also Giridhara Prapanna in his Laghumanjūsā on DS' 4).

Chapter 9

- 1. Saurabha, 2.3.17
- 2. Ibid, 2.3.42.
- 3. Ibid. 2.3.43.
- 4. Ibid. 2.3.44.
- 5. Cf. Bhagavadgitā 7.5, apareyam itas tv anyām prakrtim viddhi me param jīvabhūtām.
- 6. Kaustubha, 2.3.42, "aṁśo hi śaktirūpo grāhyah".
- 7. Saurabha, 2.3.42.
- 8. Ibid, 2.3.45-46.
- 9. Chānd, 8.5.1.
- 10. Saurabha, 3.2.5-6.
- 11. Ibid, 1.2.8.
- 12. Muṇḍ, 3.1.1., Saurabha, 1.3.8, 3.2.13.
- 13. Saurabha, 3.2.12.
- 14. Ibid, 2.3.47.
- 15. Saurabha, 2.3.18.
- 16. Nimbārka seems to be justified to take jňah as jñātā (Cf. Pāṇini 3.1.35) Śaṁkara on the other hand takes jňah as jñānam. Ghate is of the opinion that Nimbārka's view is to be accepted (Vide Ghate 1960. p. 93).
- 17. Saurabha, 2.3. 25-26.

- 18. Saurabha, 2.3.26-30.
- 19. Ibid, 2.3.27.
- 20. Ibid, 2.3.32-40.
- 21. Tait.Sam. 2.5.5. "svargakāmo yajeta".
- 22. Brh 1.4.7. "Mumuksur brahmopāsita".
- 23. Tait, 2.5, "vijñānam yajñam tanute",(Cf. Saurabha 2.3.35).
- 24. Saurabha, 2.3.32.
- 25. Ibid, 2.3.38.
- 26. Ibid. 2.3.35-37.
- 27. Ibid, 2.3.35.
- 28. Ibid, 2.3.34.
- 29. Ibid. 2.3.33.
- 30. Brh, 2.1.17-18.
- 31. Saurabha, 4.4.18.
- 32. Ibid. 2.3.40.
- 33. Ibid, 2.3.41.
- 34. Ibid. 4.4.20.
- 35. Ibid, 1.3.22.
- 36. Mund, 2.2.10, Katha 5.15.
- 37. Saurabha 2.3.39.
- 38. Ibid, 2.3.36.
- 39. Ibid, 2.3.41, 2.1.33.
- 40. Ibid, 1.2.8.
- 41. Ibid, 1.3.7.
- 42. Ibid, 3.2.1-6.
- 43. Vide infra. chapter ten.
- 44. Saurabha, 2.3.19-22.
- 45. Br.h., 4.4.2.
- 46. Saurabha, 2.3.19.
- 47. Ibid, 2.3.22.
- 48. *Bṛh*, 4.4.22 "He who is made of knowledge among the vital breath, who is the light within the heart" (Cf *Kaustubha* 2.3.24).
- 49. Saurabha, 2.3.23
- 50. Ibid, 2.3.25-26.
- 51. Ibid, 2.3.26.
- 52. Ibid, 2.3.28.

- 53. Ibid, 2.3.29.
- 54. Ibid, 2.3.48.
- 55. Ibid, 2.3.48.
- 56. Ibid, 2.3.31.
- 57. Ibid, 2.3.50.
- 58. Ibid. 2.3.51.
- 59. Ibid. 2.3.52.
- 60. Ibid. 2.3.49.
- 61. Ibid. 3.2.1-6.
- 62. Ibid. 3.2.4.
- 63. Ibid, 3.2.7
- 64. Ibid. 2.3.30.
- 65. Ibid, 3.2.8.
- 66. Ibid, 3.2.9.
- 67. The Saurabhakāra interprets the compound in the sūtra 3.2.9 karmānuśmṛti śabda vidhibhyaḥ as (1) karmānuśmṛti (2) śabda and (3) vidhibhyaḥ while others including Śrīnivāsa break the compound karmānusmṛti into two viz. karma and anusmṛti, thus offering four reasons instead of the three offered by the Saurabhakāra.
- 68. Saurabha 3.2.10.
- 69. Ibid, 4.2.1 ff.
- 70. Ibid, 1.3.26.
- 71. Ibid, 1.3.27.
- 72. Ibid, 1.3.28-29.
- 73. Ibid, 1.1.31.
- 74. Ibid, 1.3.33.
- 75. *Ibid*, 3.3.32, Cf. Śamkarabhāṣya on the same sūtra, where he mentions the names of Sanatkumāra, Nārada etc, which are left out by Nimbārka.
- 76. Vide supra. p. 249
- 77. Vide supra, chapter eight, Saurabha, 1.3.34-40.
- 78. Vide infra, chapter ten.
- 79. Saurabha, 3.1.17, Cf. Chānd 5.10.4-8, Brh, 6.2.16.
- 80. Saurabha, 3.2.5, See also chapter eight above.
- 81. Ibid, 1.3.19-20.
- 82. The Nimbārkites consider bondage to be a reality, not a phenomenal appearance. Bondage is the soul's connection

with avidyā and its effects in the form of merits and demerits. Cf. also (1) Puruṣottama Prasāda Vaiṣṇava. SAKV, p. 53 and p. 71; (2) Vanamāli Miśra. VSS, 1.8-21.

- 83. Saurabha 4.2.8-11.
- 84. Ibid, 3.3.30.
- 85. Ibid, 4.2.11-12
- 86. Ibid, 4.2.14-15.
- 87. Ibid, 3.3.30, 4.2.9.
- 88. Ibid, 3.3.27.
- 89. Ibid, 2.3.16.
- 90. Ibid, 2.3.24.
- 91. Ibid, 2.4.1-18.
- 92. Ibid, 2.4.1-4, 2.4.8.
- 93. Ibid, 2.4.10-12.
- 94. Ibid, 2.4.14-16.
- 95. Ibid. 2.4.7.
- 96. Ibid. 3.2.13.
- 97. Ibid, 1.1.2.
- 98. Ibid, 1.4.3.
- 99. Ibid, 1.4.25, 1.4.27, 1.3.42. 2.1.25-26, 2.2.37.
- 100. Vide chapter two where it is pointed out that Nimbarka cannot be the author of DS.
- 101. BS 2.2.28-32.
- 102. Saurabha, 2.2.28.
- 103. Ibid, 2.2.29.
- 104. Ibid, 2.2.30.
- 105. Ibid, 2.3.31.
- 106. Ibid, 2.3.32.
- 107. Śrīnivāsa in the *Vedānta Kaustubha* gives a detailed account of the doctrine of the *Vijnānavādins* and the *Śūnyavādins*. He also refutes their doctrines with more detailed reasoning. *Vide Kaustubha* 2.2.28.
- 108. Later Nimbārkites like Vanamāli Misra refutes the illusion theories of the Advaitins. *Vide VSS*, IV 180-194.

Chapter 10

- 1. Cf. Saurabha, 2.1.8-10.
- 2. Ibid, 4.2.14.

- 3. Ibid, 4.2.15. See footnote 152 below.
- 4. Later Nimbārkites give a detailed account of these various duties. Cf. Giridharaprapanna. "LM" pp. 26, and 36-37.
- 5. Saurabha, 3.4.32, 4.1.16, 4.1.18.
- 6. Ibid. 3.4.27.
- 7. Ibid, 3.4.28-29.
- 8. Ibid, 3.4.32-33.
- 9. Ibid, 3.4.33.
- 10. Ibid. 3.4.37.
- 11. Ibid, 3.4.47...ity gṛhiṇopasamhāraḥ sarvāśrama dharma sadbhāvāt sarva dharma pradarśanārthaḥ.
- 12. Chand, 2.23.1, Cf. Saurabha, 3.4.48.
- 13. Saurabha, 3.1.25.
- 14. Ibid, 3.4.32.
- 15. Ibid. 4.1.14.
- 16. Ibid. 4.1.14.
- 17. Ibid, 1.1.4, 3.4.27, 3.4.32.
- 18. Ibid, 3.4.33.
- 19. Ibid, 3.4.33-34.
- 20. Ibid, 3.4.35.
- 21. Ibid, 3.4.1.
- 22. Ibid, 3.4.25.
- 23. Ibid, 3.4.9-11.
- 24. Ibid, 3.4.15.
- 25. Ibid, 3.4.41.
- 26. Ibid, 3.4.2 karmāngabhūta kartr samskāradvāreņa vidyāyāḥ karmāngatvam, kartuḥ karmaśeṣatvāt.
- 27. Ibid, 3.4.4-7
- 28. Ibid, 3.4.3.
- 29. Chānd, 1.1.10 "What alone one does with knowledge, with faith, with the mystic doctrine, that alone becomes more potent. (Chānd 8.15.1) "Having studied the Veda in the house of a teacher in accordance with rules in (the leisure) time left over from doing work for the teacher, having returned to his own home studying his sacred text in some clean spot" (Br,h 4.4.2) "Knowledge and work lay hold of him.
- 30. Saurabha, 3.4.8-12.
- 31. *Ibid*, 3.4.13-14.

- 32. Saurabha, 3.3.43-50.
- 33. *Ibid*, 3.4.16, Here Nimbārka accepts what has already been accepted by Manu 2.87. Nimbārka also points out that the *Chāndogya* speak of the right of those who are between the āsramas to vidyā.
- 34. Saurabha, 3.4.17.
- 35. Ibid, 3.4.18-20.
- 36. Ibid, 3.4.36-37.
- 37. Ibid, 3.4.25.
- 38. Ibid, 3.4.27.
- 39. See chapter eight for the qualifications for Brahmajijñāsā.
- 40. Saurabha, 1.3.34-41.
- 41. Ibid, 3.4.40.
- 42. Ibid, 3.4.41.
- 43. Ibid, 1.3.34-41.
- 44. Ibid, 3.4.31.
- 45. *Ibid*, 3.4.28, Cf. *Chānd* 5.2.1, Verily, to one who knows thus, there is nothing whatever that is not food. *Manusmṛti* 10.104. He who being in danger of life eats food from anyone whatsoever. *Bhagavadgītā* 5.10. He is not touched by sin as a lotus leaf is not touched by water.
- 46. Saurabha 1.1.1.
- 47. Cf. Katha 1.3.14.
- 48. Br.h 2.4.5, 4.5.6. Cf Saurabha 4.1.1
- 49. *Chand* 6.14.2. "a man who has got a teacher knows. He has to wait just until he is freed (from the body) and then he becomes united (with Brahman).
- 50. Saurabha, 4.1.3.
- 51. Chānd 3.14.3.
- 52. Brh. 3.4.1.
- 53. Saurabha, 3.3.52.
- 54. Ibid, 4.3.14-15.
- 55. *Ibid*, 3.3.51.
- 56. *Ibid*, 4.1.4-6.
- 57. Ibid, 4.1.4.
- 58. Ibid, 4.3.15.
- 59. Ibid, 3.3.35-37.
- 60. Nimbārka describes the various types of meditation as

- upāsanam, Cf. Saurabha 3.3.1 anekatra proktam apy upāsanam ekam eva codanādy aviśeṣāt.
- 61. Saurabha, 3.4.8.
- 62. Cf. Ibid, 4.1.3 also UK 4.1.3 and 4.1.6.
- 63. Ibid, 3.3.51-52.
- 64. Ibid. 4.1.5.
- 65. Ibid, 4.1.5.
- 66. Ibid, 3.3.19, 3.3.31, Vide also Bṛh 5.6, Śat Br. 10.6.3, Chānd 3.14.
- 67. Ibid, 3.3.10.
- 68. *Ibid*, 3.4.21-22. The Saurabhakāra holds in *Saurabha* 3.3.7-9 that the *udgītha* propounded in *Bṛh* 1.1.1-7 and *Chānd* 1.2.1-7 are different *vidyās* in themselves in spite of the fact that both of them have the same name (*udgītha*), on account of the difference of the object. In *Chāndogya*, the *praṇava* which is an *avayava* (part) of the *udgītha* is to be meditated on under the aspect of Prāṇa, while in *Bṛhadāraṇyaka*, the entire *udgītha* is to be meditated on.
- 69. Saurabha 3.3.55, Vide also Chānd 8.1-8.6
- 70. Ibid, 3.3.56, Vide also Chand 5.11-5.18.
- 71. For *Upakośala vidyā*. Cf. Chānd. 4-10-4.15. For *Pańcāgnividyā* See *Brh* 6.3, *Chānd* 5.4, 5.10. For *Madhuvidyā* See *Brh*. 2.5.6, 2.5.19. See also fn 4 in chapter seven.
- 72. Saurabha, 3.3.1-5.
- 73. Ibid, 3.3.57-58.
- 74. Ibid, 3.3.56.
- 75. *Ibid*, 3.3.11, 3.3.13, 3.3.31, 3.3.34, 3.3.37, 3.3.35.
- 76. Ibid, 3.3.11.
- 77. Ibid, 3.3.33-34, Cf. Brh 3.8.8.
- 78. Ibid, 3.3.33-34, Cf. Brh 3.8.8.
- 79. Chānd, 8.1.5.
- 80. Saurabha, 3.3.38.
- 81. Brh 4.4.22.
- 82. Saurabha, 3.3.38.
- 83. Ibid. 3.3.38
- 84. Ibid, 3.3.5.
- 85. Ibid, 3.3.55.
- 86. *Ibid*, 3.3.12, 3.3.15, 3.3.20-25.
- 87. Ibid, 4.1.7-10.

- 88. Saurabha, 4.1.11.
- 89. Ibid, 4.1.12.
- 90. Ibid, 3.4.50.
- 91. Ibid, 3.4.49.
- 92. Ibid, 3.4.46.
- 93. Ibid, 3.4.49.
- 94 Kaustubha, 3.4.49.
- 95. Kaustubha, 3.4.50.
- 96. Saurabha, 3.4.50, 3.4.38.
- 97. Cf Katha, 6.18.
- 98. Saurabha, 3.2.5, 4.1.13-14.
- 99. Ibid. 4.1.15.
- 100. Ibid. 4.1.19.
- 101. Ibid, 3.4.51.
- 102. Saurabha 3.2.24 But Brahman is revealed in devotional meditation (Bhaktiyoge dhyāne) in accordance with the following Śruit and Śmṛti texts, viz, "He, with his nature purified through the clarification of the knowledge of Brahman perceives, meditating him who is without parts" (Muṇḍ 3.1.8) "But through exclusive devotion, I may be known thus, O Arjuna, and perceived in truth, and entered, O conqueror of enemies". (Gītā 11.54).
- 103. Cf. Bhagavadgitā 11.54-55, 12.6-20, 18.54-58, 18.66.
- 104. *Ibid*, 3.2.25. Just as there is manifestation of the sun, fire and the like through the repetition of the means resorted to by those who long for them, so there is "non-difference" (avaiśeṣyam) in the case of Brahman too, i.e. there is "manifestation" of Brahman. The sense is that the direct vision of Brahman results from the incessant repetition of the Sādhanās or the means consisting in perfect meditation.
- 105. Mañjūṣā, p. 97. pp. 115-18, pp. 126-28.
- 106. SAKV, p. 127 f.
- 107. LM. pp. 33-37.
- 108. Saurabha 1.1.1. "bhagavat prasādepsunā..."
- 109. Ibid, 4.2.16.
- 110. The idea of grace is known to the Upaniṣadic sages also. The Katḥopaniṣad speaks clearly of the inadequacy of human efforts to attain liberation. "This soul (ātman) is not to be

obtained by instruction, nor by intellect, nor by much learning. He is to be obtained only by the one whom he chooses, to such a one that soul reveals his own person (*Katḥa* 1.2.23).

- 111. Saurabha, 4.1.16
- 112. Chānd, 4.14.3.
- 113. Saurabha, 4.1.17.
- 114. Helmuth von **Glasenapp**, 1963, p. 81. Chacko **Valiaveetil** (1980, pp. 58-61) explains various Vedāntic understanding of the *jīvan mukti*. While the Advaita School of Śamkara accepts "*jīvan mukti*" Rāmānuja, Madhva and Bhāskara do not accept the possibility of liberation in the embodied state.
- 115. Saurabha, 3.4.51, 4.1.15.
- 116. Similar is the view of other systems of philosophy which accept the reality of the world and the distinction of jiva from God. Cf. Vatsyāyana on Nyāya Sūtra 4.2.43. Curiously enough that while Madhava Mukunda (Cf PPGV. IV, 18-22, pp. 879-83) refutes the advaitic doctrine of jīvan mukti (the term jīvan mukti is hardly used by Śainkara. Cf. Deussen: 1912, p. 425 and S.N. Dasgupta. A history of Indian philosophy, Vol. II p. 264) Vanamāli Miśra seems to accept an embodied emancipation for some devotees, who have acquired spiritual fitness for experiencing God (VSS 2.39) although he himsel criticises the Advaitins' concept of embodied release (VSS 2.95). Keśavakāśmirībhaṭṭa is another great Nimbārkite who refutes the jīvan muktivāda of the Advaitins. Cf. VKP 4.4.7.
- 117. Saurabha, 4.2.7, Cf. BS, 4.1.13.
- 118. Saurabha, 4.3.1. ff.
- 119. Ibid, 3.1.8.
- 120. Ibid, 3.1.17.
- 121. They act contrary to the scriptural injunction i.e. they do what is forbidden and refuse to do what is prescibed. (Saurabha, 3.1.12).
- 122. Chānd, 6.9.2, "ta iha vyāghro vā simho va vṛko vā varāho vā damśo vā maśako vā yad yad bhavanti tadā bhavanti".
- 123. Chānd, 6.8.6.
- 124. Praśna, 3.9.
- 125. Brh, 4.3.38, 4.4.2, Prasna, 6.3.
- 126. Bṛh, 4.4.5, Saurabha, 4.2.1-6.
- 127. Saurabha, 4.2.7.

- 128. Saurabha, 3.1.6.
- 129. *Ibid*, 3.1.6, *Chānd*, 5.10.3-4, Cf. *Brh* 6.2.16. The path of the fathers, beginning with *dhūma* meant for a performer of good deeds, becomes darker and darker as one proceeds along. As pointed out by Roma **Bose** this description seems to be a figurative expression of the inadequacies of the rites and works in effecting the total liberation of man. A man who spends all his life in performing rituals and "good deeds" becomes more and more deluded as he proceeds. All what such good works can obtain for him is a temporary enjoyment in the world of the moon. (*VPSK* Vol. III p. 39).
- 130. Saurabha, 3.1.8.
- 131. Ibid, 3.1.22-24.
- 132. Ibid, 4.2.16.
- 133. Ibid, 4.2.17.
- 134. Ibid. 3.3.26.
- 135. Ibid, 3.3.27.
- 136. Kaus, 1.4.
- 137. Saurabha, 4.2.7.
- 138. Ibid, 3.3.30.
- 139. *Ibid*, 3.3.30, 4.2.8-10. It is significant to note that the Saurabhakāra does not call this special place as *Vaikuntha*. Purusottama Prasāda Vaiṣṇava considers the abode of the Supreme God as Vaikuṇtḥa, which is spiritual, possessed of the six qualities of lordship made of pure *aprakṛta sattva* and without the three-fold qualities of *sattva,rajas* and *tamas*. It is eternal, imperishable, inexhaustible, supernatural, nonspatial, non-temporal, uncaused, supramundane and transcendental. Cf. *SAKV*, pp. 86-87.
- 140. Saurabha, 3.3.31.
- 141. Ibid, 4.3.1-3. Chānd, 4.15.5, 5.10.1-2, Brh 6.2.15, Kaus 1.3.
- 142. Saurabha, 4.2.18-20.
- 143. Saurabha, 4.3.4-5. The path of the gods is a brighter one in comparison to the path of the Fathers. It becomes more and more luminous as one progresses on his way. He is accompanied by more lustrous and powerful deities. It may be an allegorical expression of the spiritual transformation of the knower into Brahma sāmyam (similarity with Brahman). The path of knowledge leads the seeker to his ultimate goal, his summum bonum, the attainment of Brahman, from where there is no return to this world of misery. (Cf VPSK Vol III P.39.

- 144. Saurabha, 4.3.6-15.
- 145. Mund, 3.2.6 "But they all, attaining the highest immortality, are freed in the world of Brahman at the time of the great end.
- 146. Kūrma Purāṇa, 12.5-6. When the universal dissolution has come as well as the end of the highest then they with their selves realized, enter the highest place together with Brahman.
- 147. For a detailed and comparative study of the concept of Moksa see: (a) Ashok Kumar Lad. (1973)(b) Helmuth ven Glasenapp (1963)
- 148. Cf Also Chānd 8.1.5.
- 149. RV. 1.89.8 ff.
- 150. A.B. **Keith**, The Religions and Philosophy of the Vedas and the Upanishad, Vol. II, (Harvard Oriental Series, Vol. 32) p.410
- 151. Saurabha, 4.2.14.
- 152. *Ibid*, 4.2.15. Those subtle elements together with speech and the rest come to have non-division (avibhāga) i.e. essential identity, (tādātmyāpattiḥ) with the Highest. "On account of the declaration" "And their name and form are destroyed, it is simply called a Person" (*Praśna* 6.5).
- 153. Saurabha, 3.3.30.
- 154. *Ibid*, 3.2.26, *Brahmasākṣātkārād heto stena saha sāmyam* yāti. (also Bhagavadgītā 14.2).
- 155. Ibid, 4.4.19.
- 156. Ibid, 4.4.19, 1.1.15, 1.1.18
- 157. Ibid, 4.4.1-7, 3.3.30.
- 158. Ibid, 4.4.7, 4.4.16, 4.4.19.
- 159. Ibid, 4.4.4 "muktah parasmād ātmānam vibhāgāvirodhinā'vibhāgenānubhavati, Tattvasya tadānīm aparokṣato dṛṣṭatvāt. śāstrasyāpy evam dṛṣṭatvāt.
- 160. Ibid, 4.4.18.
- 161. Ibid, 1.3.42, 4.4.4, 4.4.17, 4.4.1.
- 162. Ibid, 4.4.9.
- 163. Ibid, 1.1.2, 4.4.20.
- 164. Ibid, 4.4.9, 4.4.13-14.
- 165. Ibid, 1.1.15, 1.1.18, 1.1.20, 3.2.39, 4.4.19 etc.
- 166. Ibid, 4.4.8.
- 167. Ibid, 3.3.40.

- 168 Saurabha, 4.4.9.
- 169 Ibid, 4.4.11-13.
- 170 Ibid, 4.4.13.
- 171 Ibid, 4.4.14, 4.4.2.
- 172 Ibid, 4.4.15.
- 173 Ibid, 4.4.4. The freed soul realizes itself "as non-divided" (avibhāgena) from the Highest Self, which non-division is compatible with a division (vibhāgāvirodhinā'vibhāgena) (between the two), since this truth is directly intuited at that time (viz. during release), and since scripture too intuits this.
- 174 Saurabha, 4.4.22.

Chapter 11

- 1. Saurabha 2.1.14.
- 2. Ibid, 2.1.21.
- 3. Ibid, 2.3.42.
- 4. Ibid. 1.1.3. 2.1.26.
- 5. Muṇḍaka, 1.1.3, "Of these two, one tastes the sweet berry, the other looks on without eating". (Cf. Saurabha, 1.3.7, 3.2.13. Bṛh, 4.3.21). "Embraced by the intelligent soul he does not know anything eternal nor anything internal". Saurabha, 4.4.16, Cf. Saurabha, 1.3.43 which describes the jiva as a non-knower in deep sleep.
- 6. Svet 6.9, "He is the cause, the Lord of the lord of causes, Cf. Saurabha, 4.4.20, Brh 4.4.22, "The controller of all, the ruler of all (Cf. Saurabha, 4.2.20, 1.3.44).
- 7. BS1.1.17,18,20,22.; 1.2.3,4,5,6,8,11,12,21,23.; 1.3.2,5,19.; 2.1.21; 2.3.24, 3.2.27-30, 4.4.15-16 etc.
- 8. Cf. Ghate (1960 p. 28).
- 9. Saurabha, 2.1.13. 2.3.28.
- 10. Ibid, 2.3.42.
- 11. Ibid, 1.1.18.
- 12. Ibid, 1.2.12.
- 13. Ibid, 1.2.21.
- 14. *Ibid*, 1.2.8, 1.3.7, 3.2.13-14.
- 15. Ibid, 4.4.20, 1.3.42, 4.4.15.
- 16. Chānd, 3.14.1. Sarvam khalvidam brahma tajjālāniti sānta upāsīta, Cf. Saurabha, 1.2.1, 2.1.14, Cf. Also 3.2.37.

Chānd, 6.1.4 Vācārambhaṇam vikāro nāmadheyam mṛttiketyeva satyam, Cf. Saurabha, 2.1.14.

Chānd, 6.9.4, aitadātmyam idam sarvam tat satyam tattvam asi , Cf. Saurabha, 2.1.14 .

Bṛh, 1.4.10, aham brahmāsmi (incidentaly it may be noted that the Saurabhakāra does not refer to this śruti text).

Brh. 2.5.19, ayam ātmā brahma, Cf. Saurabha, 2.1.20.

- 17. Cf. the conclusions arrived at by V.S. **Ghate** on the *advaita* theory of Samkara and the *bheda* theory of Madhva. (Vide **Ghate**, 1960, pp 156-170.) Samkara, conscious of the fact that he is going against the ordinary understanding of the *sūtras* while imposing his view on them, adds a note of explanation in some cases (eg. 1.1.17, 1.2.6,20; 1.3.19). According to Śańkara the difference between Brahman and the jīva is due to *māyā* and therefore is only phenomenal (*vyāvahārika*) as opposed to real (*Pāramārthika*). Yet Śańkara has to concede at *sūtra* 1.2.12 that one of the two namely jīva is the *gantr* (the goer) while the other (*Brahman*) is the *gantavya* (the goal of the journey).
- 18. Ibid, p. 169-70.
- 19. Saurabha, 2.1.17.
- 20. Ibid, 2.1.18.
- 21. Ibid, 2.1.19.
- 22. Vide supra, chapter eight.
- 23. V.S. Ghate, 1960, p. 162.
- 24. Saurabha, 1.4.26. "Brahmaiva nimittamupādānamca. Kutaḥ? tadātmānam svayamakurate (Tait 2.7) ity ātmakrteh. nanu kartuḥ kutaḥ kṛṭiviṣayatvam? Pariṇāmāt sarvajñam sarvaśakti brahma svasáktivikṣepeṇa jagadākāram svātmānam pariṇamayya, avyakṛṭena svarūpeṇa śaktimatā kṛṭimatā pariṇatam eva bhavati.
- 25. Cf. Saurabha, 2.1.23-30.
- 26. Ibid, 2.1.26.
- 27. Thomas Fawcett, 1970, p. 50.
- 28. Saurabha, 2.1.14.
- 29. Ibid, 1.4.21,
- 30. Ibid, 3.2.20, 2.3.42.
- 31. Ibid, 3.2.11, 1.2.8.
- 32. Ibid, 2.1.13, Brahmaņo jagad upādānatve jīvarūpeņa brahmaņa eva sukhaduḥkhabhoktṛtvāpatter prasiddhobhoktṛ

niyantr vibhāgo na syād iti cet, avibhāge'pi samudratarangayor iva tayor vibhāgaḥ syāt.

- 33. Ibid, 2.1.13.
- 34. Ibid, 2.1.13, 3.2.28.
- 35. Ibid, 2.1.23, 1.4.26.
- 36. Ibid. 2.3.42.
- 37. Ibid, 3.2.27.
- 38. Saurabha, 2.1.14, kāryasya kāraṇānanyatvam asti, na tvatyantabhinnatvam. kutaḥ? "vācārambhaṇam vikāro nāmadheyam mṛttiketyeva satyam (Chānd 6.1.4),, "aitadātmyam idam sarvam tat satyam tat tvam asi" (Chānd 6.9.4) "sarvam khalvidam brahma" (Chānd 3.14.1) ityādibhyah.
- 39. See "Brahman and the Universe are correlative" in chapter eight p. 239.
- 40. M.M Agrawal, 1977, p. 46.
- 41. Annambhaṭṭa, Tarkasangraha: "tadātmyasambandhāvacchinnapratiyogitākonyonyabhāvaḥ" (Kāśi ed. 1939, p. 133).
- 42. Saurabha, 1.1.4, 1.4.11.
- 43. Ibid 2.1.23-24.
- 44. (a) *Saurabha*, 2.1.21. "We hold that the creator of the world is Brahman, who is "something more" than, i.e. superior to, the embodied soul, the enjoyer of pleasure and pain. "On account of the designation of difference" in the passage "who rules the soul within" (*Śat Br* 14.6.7.30) there is no absolute non-difference between the two."
 - (b) Saurabha 2.1.22 "Like the diamond, the lapis lasuli, the ruby and the rest which are the modifications of the earth, the individual soul, though non-different from Brahman, is also different from Him, possessing, as it does, some particular qualities of its own...."
- 45. Vide V.S. Ghate, 1960, pp 156-170.
- 46. When we say that Brahman is an incomprehensible mystery we do not mean that we cannot understand the Reality of Brahman, but that the very mode of this Reality is beyond the comprehension of our daily experience. He ever remains the Beyond, the Absolute, the Infinite and the Transcendent. He cannot be exhausted by the human knowledge or human experience.

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